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ABSTRACT

These proceedings contain 50 papers. Selected brief titles include: "A Comparative Analysis of Costs and Perceived Effectiveness of Postgraduate Continuing Education for Mississippi Pharmacists" (Bellande); "A Conceptual and Empirical Perspective on Adult Education Program Planning Theory" (Boshier); "Self-Directed Adult Learning" (Brookfield); "Program Planning as Technology in Three Adult Education Units" (Burnham); "The Learning Contract as a Tool for Developing Readiness and Competencies in Self-Directed Learning" (Caffarella, Caffarella); "Analyzing the Short-Term and Long-Term Effectiveness of Continuing Professional Education" (Cervero); "Does Teaching Style Make a Difference in Adult Education?" (Conti); "A Longitudinal Ethnographic Study of Selected Developmentally Disabled Adults" (Ebert); "Achieving Career Continuity through Continuing Education--Experiences of a Thousand Canadian Women in a Non-Traditional Field" (Ellis); "Incidental Learning in the Intentional and Structured Learning Experiences of Adult Students" (Fodor); "The Meliorist Position as a Philosophic Base for Adult Education" (Godbey); "Workers' Education and the Labor College Movement" (Hellyer, Schied); "Assessment of Adult Learning Styles" (James); "Aims and Instructional Variables as Interactive Predictors of Adult Education Methods" (Little); "The Psychosocial Development of Adult High School Non-Completers" (Martin); "Epistemological Foundations" (Mezirow); "The Intrapersonal Role Conflicts of Adult Women Undergraduate Students" (Mikolaj); "The 'Mixed' College Classroom" (Mishler); "Planning Successful Continuing Education Programs" (Murk); "Neglected Themes in Adult Education Historical Research in Canada" (Omolewa); "Andragogical Assumptions" (Pratt); "Eduard C. Lindeman: Self-Directed Learner for the Eighties" (Rielly); "Liberalism and the Eclipsing of Conflict in the Framing of Adult Education" (Rockhill); "Participation in and Attitudes towards Adult Education in the Irish Republic" (Rogers); "A Study of Career Patterns, Professional Mobility, and Job Satisfaction Levels among Public School Adult Education Administrators in Indiana" (Roudebush, Fallon); "Examining the Learning Styles of Returning Adult Students" (Schmidt); "Functions of Research" (Schumacher); "The Early Adult

Life Structure of Women Following Traditional Homemaker, Career-Committed, and Integrated Life Patterns" (Scott, Hickey); "Assuming Responsibility for Self-Directed Learning in Professional Practice" (Sexton-Hesse); "Evaluation in Adult Education" (Sork); "Intellectual and Experiential Origins of Paul Bergevin's 'A Philosophy for Adult Education'" (Stubblefield); "Growth and Renewal in Adult Education" (Takemoto); "Locus of Control and Course Completion of Adult Basic Education Literacy Program Participants" (Taylor); "Successful Self-Directed Learners' Learning Styles" (Theil); "The Admissions Decision Process of Students Accepted into Graduate Study in Adult Education" (Tyler, Carter); "Adults' Lifelong Issues" (Williams, Stockton); and "Instructional Behaviors Valued by Adult Continuing Education Students Related to Student Personality Type" (Zerges). (YLB)

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Proceedings of the Twenty-fifth Annual Adult Education Research Conference

April 5-7 1984
Raleigh NC

In cooperation with the
Department of Adult
and Community College Education
North Carolina State University

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Twenty-fifth
Adult Education Research Conference

April 5-7, 1984

Purposes of the Adult Education Research Conference

To promote the improvement of research and evaluation in adult education; to foster professional collaboration among persons who promote research, conduct research, or utilize research findings in the field of adult education

1984 Steering Committee

Michael Collins, Chairman, University of Saskatchewan (1984)
Stephen Brookfield, Columbia University (1985)
Mary Jane Even, University of Nebraska (1984)
Ron Shearon, North Carolina State University (1984)
Tom Sork, University of British Columbia (1985)

in cooperation with

Department of Adult & Community College Education
North Carolina State University
Raleigh, North Carolina

HISTORY MINI-CONFERENCE

Wednesday, April 4

Salon D

7:00 - 9:30 PM	"Images and Reality: the Politics of Regional Cultures" Screening of the new film "Images of Appalachia", followed by panel discussion led by Helen Lewis of Appalshop
9:30 - 10:30 PM	Business Meeting (open to all interested persons)

Thursday, April 5

Judicial Room

9:00 - 10:45 AM	"Historical Inquiry in Adult Education: A Research Agenda" Panel discussion: Harold Stubblefield (Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State University), Amy Rose (Columbia University), Charlotte Morgan (Herbert Lehman College), and Maxine Seller (SUNY-Buffalo)
11:00 - 12:00 AM	"Open Forum on Doing History: Themes and Resources" An opportunity for researchers to discuss ideas, work in progress, and how to deal with and where to find historical material. Convener: Pat Keane (Dalhousie University)

PROGRAM - 1984 AERC

Thursday, April 5

10:00 AM - 1:00 PM	Registration	
1:00 PM - 1:30 PM	Welcome - E. J. Boone, Professor & Head, Adult & Community College Education	Salon B & C
1:30 PM - 3:00 PM	**Forum** WHITHER AERC?	Salon B & C
3:00 PM - 3:30 PM	Coffee Break	Salon Corridor
3:30 PM - 4:20 PM	**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	1. A. Lanier	Salon A
	2. P. Takemoto	Salon B
	3. S. Schmidt	Salon C
	4. J. Mezirow	Judicial Room
4:30 PM - 5:20 PM	**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	5. B. Bellande	Salon A
	6. C. Mishler	Salon B
	7. H. Williams	Salon C
	8. G. Godbey	Judicial Room
5:30 PM - 6:30 PM	Social Hour	Salon D & E
	DINNER ON YOUR OWN	
8:00 PM - 9:30 PM	**Symposium**	Salon B & C
	"A Multipurpose Examination of the Issues Surrounding Competency-Based Education and Competency-Based Adult Education" Chair: Paul J. Ilsley	

Friday, April 6, 1984

8:30 AM - 9:20 AM	**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	9. B. Burnham	Salon A
	10. C. Tyler & G. L. Carter	Salon B
	11. G. Roderick	Salon C
	12. S. Stanage	Judicial Room

9:30 AM - 10:20 AM	**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	13. D. Little	Salon A
	14. J. Scott & R. Hickey	Salon B
	15. S. Schumacher	Salon C
	16. K. Rockhill	Judicial Room
10:20 AM - 10:40 AM	Coffee Break	Salon Corridor
10:40 AM - 11:30 AM	**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	17. R. Kemerer & M. Wahlstrom	Salon A
	18. M. Taylor	Salon B
	19. R. Boshier	Salon C
	20. E. Rielly	Judicial Room
11:40 AM - 12:30 PM	**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	21. T. Sork	Salon A
	22. E. Mikolaj	Salon B
	23. S. Brookfield	Salon C
	24. S. Craver	Judicial Room
12:30 PM - 1:30 PM	LUNCH (Included in registration fee)	Bowties
1:30 PM - 3:00 PM	**Two Concurrent Symposia**	
	"Adults Learning Alone" Chair: Mary Jane Even	Salon A & B
	"Problems and Promises of Ethnographic Research in Adult Education" Chair: James H. McElhinney	Salon C
3:00 PM - 3:20 PM	Coffee Break	Salon Corridor
3:20 PM - 4:10 PM	**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	25. R. Cervero	Salon A
	26. L. Martin	Salon B
	27. C. Sexton-Hesse	Salon C
	28. B. Byrd	Judicial Room
4:20 PM - 5:30 PM	**Business Meeting**	Salon A, B, C
6:00 PM - 7:00 PM	Social Hour	Biggs Suite, Room 536
	DINNER ON YOUR OWN	

Saturday, April 7, 1984

8:30 AM - 9:20 AM		**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	29.	J. Gorham	Salon A
	30.	D. Ellis	Salon B
	31.	P. Murk	Salon C
	32.	H. Stubblefield	Judicial Room
8:30 AM - 10:20 AM		**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	33.	D. Pratt	Salon A
	34.	A. Rogers	Salon B
	35.	J. Theil	Salon C
	36.	J. Fodor	Judicial Room
10:20 AM - 10:40 AM		Coffee Break	Salon Corridor
10:40 AM - 11:30 AM		**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	37.	G. Ebert	Salon A
	38.	R. Zerges	Salon B
	39.	R. & E. Caffarella	Salon C
	40.	M. Omolewa	Judicial Room
11:40 AM - 12:30 PM		**Four Concurrent Paper Sessions**	
	41.	D. Roudebush & J. Fallon	Salon A
	42.	G. Conti	Salon B
	43.	W. James	Salon C
	44.	M. Hellyer & F. Schied	Judicial Room

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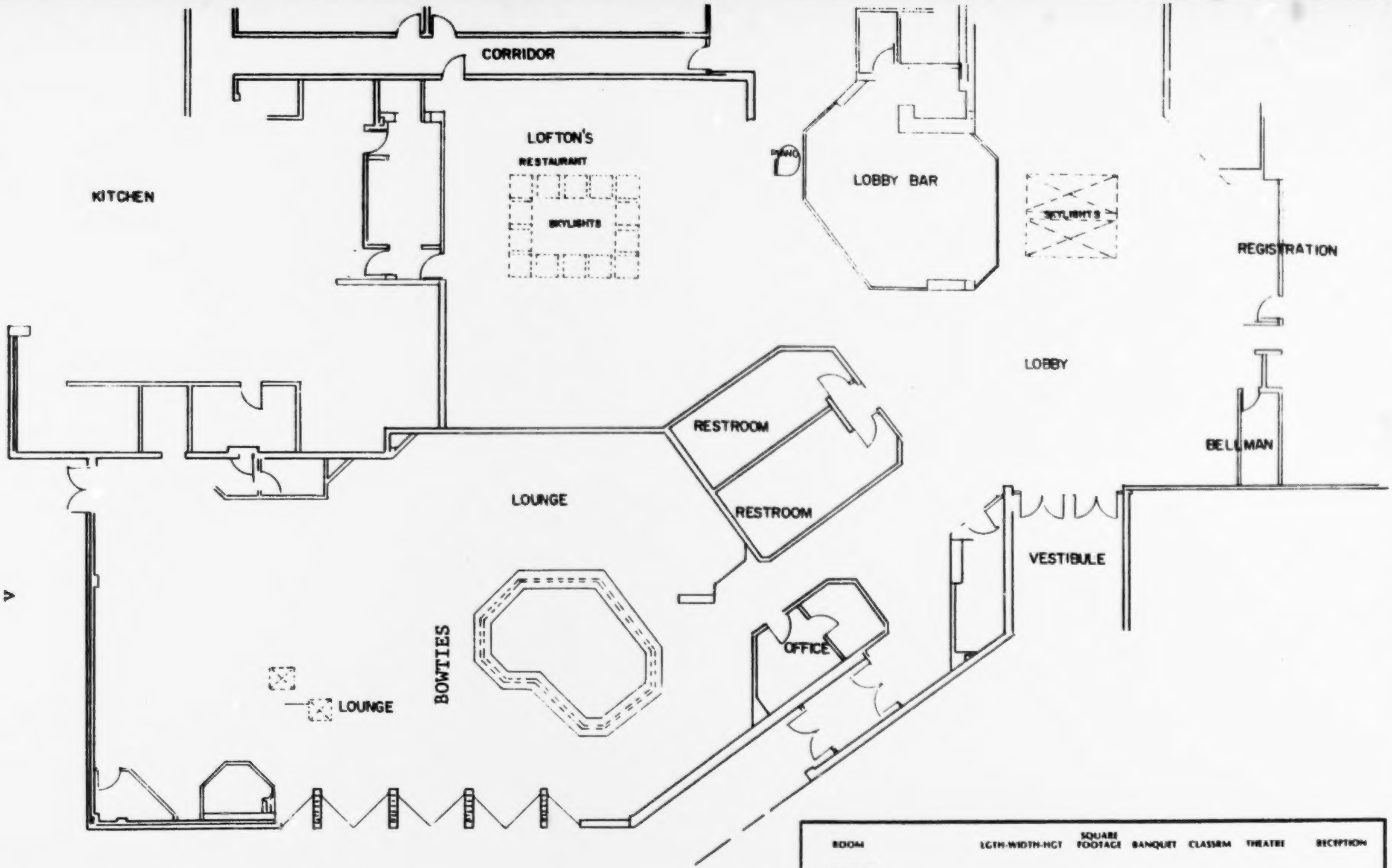
CORRIDOR
LOFTON'S
RESTAURANT
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PIANO
LOBBY BAR
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VESTIBULE
OFFICE
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SALON C	50 x 25 x 12-16	1,250	120	75	150	200
SALON B	25 x 25 x 12-16	625	60	40	75	100
SALON A	25 x 25 x 12-16	625	60	40	75	100
PRESIDENTIAL	26 x 13 x 8	338	12-16	N/A	N/A	N/A
JUDICIAL	26 x 26 x 8	676	65	40	80	120
CONGRESSIONAL	26 x 13 x 8	338	20	18	25	25
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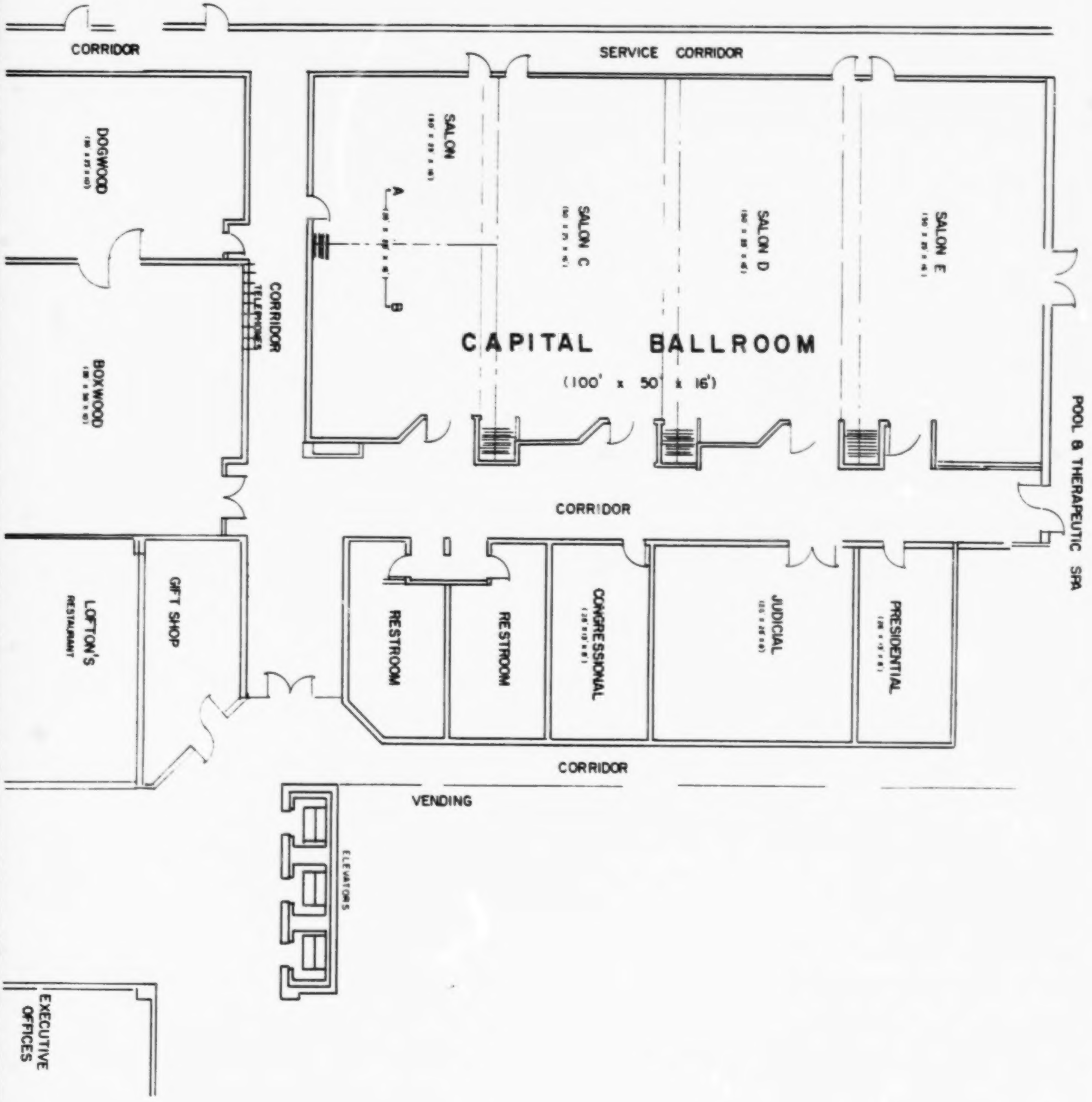
DOGWOOD	35 x 25 x 10	875	85	50	100	150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TELEPHONES
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(100' x 50' x 16')
POOL & THERAPEUTIC SPA
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LOFTON'S RESTAURANT
GIFT SHOP
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CORRIDOR
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ELEVATORS
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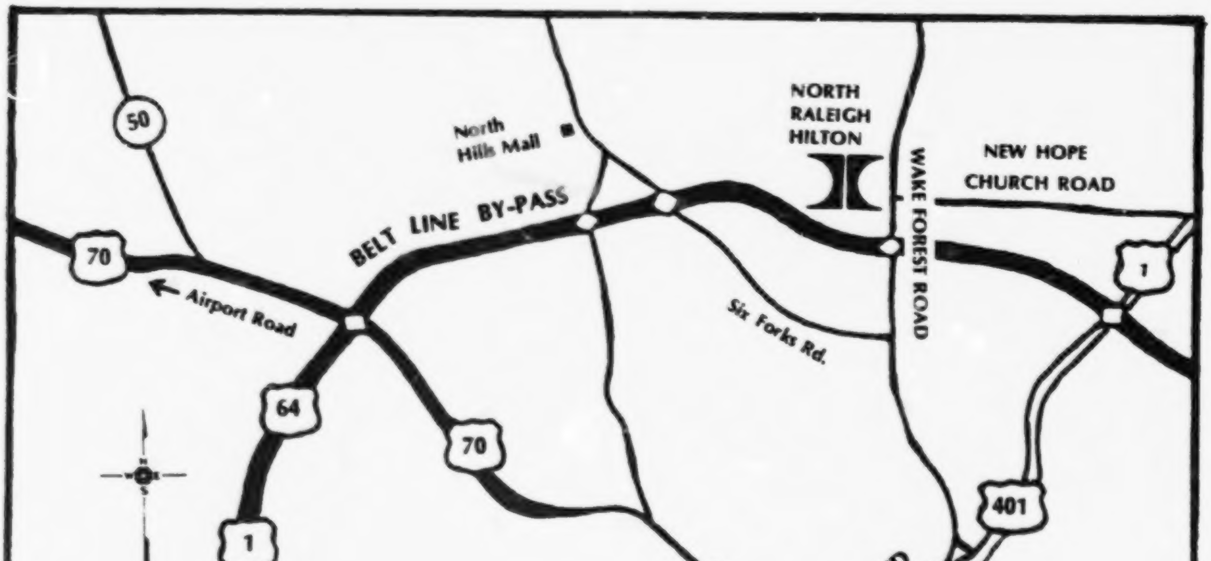
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North Hills Mall
NORTH RALEIGH HILTON
WAKE FOREST ROAD
NEW HOPE CHURCH ROAD
BELT LINE BY-PASS
70
Airport Road
Six Forks Rd.
1
64
70
401
1
DOWN TOWN BLVD
WADE AVE
To Research Triangle
40
EDENTON ST.
DAWSON ST.
HILLSBOROUGH STREET
SOUTH ST.
ST CAPITOL
WESTERN BLVD
WILMINGTON ST.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Author (Institution) Title **Page No.**

5. **BELLANDE, Bruce J.** (University of Mississippi) "A Comparative Analysis of Costs and Perceived Effectiveness of Postgraduate Continuing Education for Mississippi Pharmacists" 1

19. **BOSHIER, Roger** (University of British Columbia) "Beyond Ambulance Driving: A Conceptual and Empirical Perspective on Adult Education Program Planning Theory" 7

23. **BROOKFIELD, Stephen** (Teachers College, Columbia University) "Self-Directed Adult Learning: A Critique of Research and Theory" 14

9. **BURNHAM, Byron R.** (University of British Columbia) "Program Planning as Technology in Three Adult Education Units" 20

28. **BYRD, Barbara** (University of Texas-Austin) "Labor's Challenge to Education: The Case of Texas" 26

39. **CAFFARELLA, Rosemary S.** (Virginia Commonwealth University) and **CAFFARELLA, Edward P.** (Caffarella & Caffarella) "The Learning Contract as a Tool for Developing Readiness and Competencies in Self-Directed Learning" 32

25. **CERVERO, Ronald M.** (Northern Illinois University) "Analyzing the Short-Term and LongTerm Effectiveness of Continuing Professional Education" 38

42. **CONTI, Gary J.** (Texas A&M University) "Does Teaching Style Make a Difference in Adult Education?" 44

24. **CRAVER, Samuel M.** (Virginia Commonwealth University) "Social and Economic Attitudes in the Education of Industrial Workers in Richmond, Virginia, 1884 to 1904" 50

37. **EBERT, Gladys M.** (Iowa State University) "A Longitudinal Ethnographic Study of Selected Developmentally Disabled Adults: Application to Planning Effective Educational Programs" 55

30. **ELLIS, Dormer** (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education) "Achieving Career Continuity Through Continuing Education—(Experiences of a Thousand Canadian Women in a Non-Traditional Field)" 61

36. **FODOR, Janice H.** (Elmhurst College) "Incidental Learning in the Intentional and Structured Learning Experiences of Adult Students" 67

8. **GODBEY, Gordon C.** (Pennsylvania State University) "The Meliorist Position as a Philosophic Base for Adult Education" 72

29. **GORHAM, Joan** (Northern Illinois University) "A Current Look at 'Modern Practice': Perceived and Observed Similarities and Differences of the Same Teachers in Adult and PreAdult Classrooms" 76

44. **HELLYER, Mickey R.** and **SCHIED, Fred M.** (Northern Illinois University) "Workers' Education and the Labor College Movement: Radical Traditions in American Adult Education" 82

43. **JAMES, Waynne** (Oklahoma State University) "Assessment of Adult Learning Styles" 88

17. **KEMERER, Richard** (Bank of Montreal Institute) and **WAHLSTROM, Merl** (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education) "Predicting On-the-Job Performance: Evaluation of a Training Program" 92

1. **LANIER, Albert B.** (North Carolina State University) "Competency Perceptions of Doctoral Graduates of the Department of Adult and Community College Education, North Carolina State University--1968-1979" 97

13. **LITTLE, David J.** (University of British Columbia) "Aims and Instructional Variables as Interactive Predictors of Adult Education Methods: A Conceptual Analysis" 103

26. **MARTIN, Larry G.** (University of WisconsinMilwaukee) "Outlines of an Emerging Typology: The Psychosocial Development of Adult High School Non-Completers" 109

4. **MEZIROW, Jack** (Teachers College, Columbia University) "Epistemological Foundations" 115

22. **MIKOLAJ, Eda** (Ohio University-Zanesville) "The Intrapersonal Role Conflicts of Adult Women Undergraduate Students" 122

6. **MISHLER, Carol** (University of Wisconsin-Green Bay) "The 'Mixed' College Classroom: Effects on Class Atmosphere as Perceived by Adult Students and Their Younger Peers" 128

31. **Murk, Peter J.** (Ball State University) "Planning Successful Continuing Education Programs: A Systems Approach" 134

40. **OMOLEWA, Michael** (University of British Columbia) "Neglected Themes in Adult Education Historical Research in Canada" 140

33. **PRATT, Daniel D.** (University of British Columbia) "Andragogical Assumptions: Some Counter-Intuitive Logic" 147

20. **RIELLY, Edward** (University of Scranton) "Eduard C. Lindeman: Self-Directed Learner for the Eighties" 154

16. **ROCKHILL, Kathleen** (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education) "Between the Wars: Liberalism and the Eclipsing of Conflict in the Framing of Adult Education" 159

11. **RODERICK, Gordon W.** (University College of Swansea) "A Comparative Study of Mature and Young School Leaver Applicants to First (Bachelor) Degree Courses at British Universities (1974-1980) with Implications for the 1980's" 165

34. **ROGERS, Alan** (New University of Ulster) "Participation in and Attitudes Towards Adult Education in the Irish Republic: a Statistical Survey" 172

41. **ROUDEBUSH, Deborah M.** and **FALLON, John** (Ball State University) "A Study of Career Patterns, Professional Mobility and Job Satisfaction Levels among Public School Adult Education Administrators in Indiana" 178

3. **SCHMIDT, Steven D.** (Northland College) "Examining the Learning Styles of Returning Adult Students: Emerging Elements of Best Practice with Implications for Teaching Styles" 184

15. **SCHUMACHER, Sally** (Virginia Commonwealth University) "Functions of Research: A Conceptual Analysis of Basic, Applied and Evaluation Research and Its Application in Adult Education" 190

14. **SCOTT, Judith S.** (University of Pittsburgh) and **HICKEY, Roseanne** (Carnegie-Mellon University) "The Early Adult Life Structure of Women Following Traditional Homemaker, Career-Committed and Integrated Life Patterns: Implications for Adult Development Theory and Counseling Practice". 196

27. **SEXTON-HESSE, Charlene A.** (University of Wisconsin-Madison) "Assuming Rsponsibility for Self-Directed Learning in Professional Practice: the Contribution of Psychosocial Factors". 202

21. **SORK, Thomas J.** (University of British Columbia) "Evaluation in Adult Education: A Critical Analysis of the Literature Through 1983" 208

12. **STANAGE, Sherman M.** (Northern Illinois University) "A Phenomenology of Empowerment and Transformation: A Meditation Toward Research into Essential Structures in Adult Education" 214

32. **STUBBLEFIELD, Harold W.** (Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State University) "Intellectual and Experiential Origins of Paul Bergevin's 'A Philosophy for Adult Education'" 220

2. **TAKEMOTO, Patricia A.** (University of Wisconsin-Extension) "The Clearing: Growth and Renewal in Adult Education" 226

18. **TAYLOR, Maurice C.** (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education) "Locus of Control and Course Completion of Adult Basic Education Literacy Program Participants" 232

35. **THEIL, Jean-Pierre** (Universite de Montreal) "Successful Self-Directed Learners' Learning Styles" 237

10. **TYLER, E. Carole** and **CARTER, G. L.** (North Carolina State University) "The Admissions Decision Process of Students Accepted into Graduate Study in Adult Education" 243

7. **WILLIAMS, Howard Y.** and **William Stockton** (University of Minnesota) "Adults' Lifelong Issues" 249

38. **ZERGES, Rolf A.** (Rochester Institute of Technology) "Instructional Behaviors Valued by Adult Continuing Education Students Related to Student Personality Type". 255

ALTERNATE PAPERS

Hamilton, Edwin (Howard University) "Organizational Analysis and Its Impact Capability on Adult Literacy Programs: Implications for Nigerian Universities" 261

Hoyt, George, Lawrence Lucas, & Roy Weaver (Ball State University) "Adult Development through Time: Its Meaning for Career and Life Satisfaction" 267

LONG, Huey B. (University of Georgia) and **AGYEKUM, Stephen K.** (Armstrong State College) "Multi-Trait-Multi-Method Validation of Guglielmino's Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale" 272

SYMPOSIA

Chair: **EVEN, Mary Jane** (University of Nebraska)
Topic: "Adults Learning Alone" 279

Presenters: EVEN, Mary Jane (University of Nebraska)
CAFFARELLA, Rosemary (Virginia Commonwealth University
BROCKETT, Ralph (Syracuse University)
SMITH, Robert (Northern Illinois University)

Chair: **ILSLEY, Paul J.** (Syracuse University)
Topic: "A Multi-purpose Examination of the Issues Surrounding Competency-Based Education and Competency-Based Adult Education" 285

Presenters: COLLINS, Michael (University of Saskatchewan)
MEZIROW, Jack (Teachers College, Columbia)
RATCLIFF, Sandra (Northern Illinois University)
TAYLOR, Paul (Kansas State University)

Chair: **McELHINNEY, James H.** (Ball State University)
Topic: "Problems and Promises of Ethnographic Research in Adult Education" 291

Presenters: SCHUMACHER, Sally (Virginia Commonwealth University)
FELLENZ, Robert A. (Texas A&M University)
CONTI, Gary (Texas A&M University)
WEAVER, Roy A. (Ball State University)

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF COSTS AND PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF POSTGRADUATE CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR MISSISSIPPI PHARMACISTS

Bruce J. Bellande[1]

INTRODUCTION

During the past decade, the emerging importance of continuing education for professionals has been manifested in the enactment of increasing numbers of licensing regulations and statutes requiring mandatory participation. Today 27 states, either through actions of their legislatures and/or state licensure boards, have mandated compulsory participation in continuing education by pharmacists seeking relicensure.

Implicit in the issue of mandated professional continuing education are several important questions. What are the explicitly stated, as well as the implied objectives of continuing pharmaceutical education? Are these objectives accomplished by mandating continuing education for pharmacists? What benefits, both real and perceived, are gained by continuing education? Do these accrued benefits justify the costs to the practitioners? Are there more cost-effective methods available to accomplish the goals of continuing pharmaceutical education? Numerous studies have been conducted to address one or more of these questions. Unfortunately, there exists little consensus among study results.

Few would disagree with the reasons for continuing pharmaceutical education. It is widely recognized that once the pharmacist completes a formal preservice educational program, continuing advances in research and technology will significantly alter the currency of his knowledge as well as that of the profession. New and different products and procedures are continually being developed, bringing changes in the style, structure, and delivery of health care services. Professional and ethical issues arise, fostering the need for better-informed practitioners (Pellegrino, 1969). These factors among others led to the promotion of and participation in continuing education activities by pharmacists.

Even though cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analyses have been valuable techniques used in the public policymaking process for more than two hundred years, they have been used only sparingly in the field of health care and for less than twenty years. The most recent applications of these techniques have been confined primarily to medical care studies directed toward influencing policymakers (Bloom, 1981).

PURPOSE

As previously discussed, there exists a manifest need for research to aid policymakers, pharmacists, and educators in resolving complex public policy concerns. Therefore, given the timeliness and significance of this issue the purpose of the present study was to determine from a sample of licensed pharmacists practicing in Mississippi (a) the costs associated with continuing pharmaceutical education, and (b) the perceived effectiveness of such activities. More specifically, the objectives of the study were to develop by means of the Delphi Method a comprehensive list of pharmacy continuing education goals; to determine by means of an assessment scale the effectiveness of selected continuing education experiences as perceived by a random sample of pharmacists licensed and practicing in Mississippi; to calculate direct and indirect monetary costs incurred by practitioners according to different types of continuing education activities; to compare the costs and perceived effectiveness of different types of continuing education activities; and to determine if a relationship exists between certain demographic characteristics of Mississippi pharmacists and (a) the types of continuing education activities selected and (b) the costs and perceived effectiveness of such experiences.

---

[1] Bruce J. Bellande, Associate Director, Division of Continuing Education, The University of Mississippi, University, MS 38677.

METHODOLOGY

Data were collected by a mail survey using an instrument specifically designed for this study. The population from which a random sample was drawn consisted of 2,180 licensed pharmacists engaged in active practice in Mississippi during the 1981-82 licensure year.

Effectiveness of continuing education was determined by means of an effectiveness scale specially designed to measure how thoroughly the respondents' continuing education experiences had met a set of 11 generic goals of continuing pharmaceutical education. These goal statements were developed after three rounds of deliberation by a Delphi panel consisting of 15 experts in the fields of adult education and continuing pharmaceutical education. The panelists also assigned a weight to each goal statement based on its relative importance to the other statements. This made it possible to rank goals from least to most important and to determine relative importance of goal effectiveness in other analyses.

An effectiveness scale designed expressly to measure the respondents' assessment of their overall continuing education experiences was used to quantify perceived goal effectiveness. Respondents were instructed to assess the effectiveness of continuing education experiences according to how thoroughly the goal statements were achieved. The effectiveness scale consisted of percentages ranging from 0 to 100.

To analyze overall continuing education effectiveness, two techniques were used. First the mean and median were calculated for each goal statement based on all respondents' assessments of how well their experiences achieved a particular goal. Second, an Overall Effectiveness Value (OEV) was calculated using the weight assigned to each goal by the Delphi panel and the mean percentage of effectiveness measured by goal accomplishment. The following formula was used to calculate the OEV:

$$\text{OEV} = \frac{\text{Total Weighted Rate of Effectiveness (TWRE)}}{\text{Maximum Weighted Rate of Effectiveness (MWRE)}}$$

$$\text{TWRE} = \mathop{}_{i=1}^{n} (\text{PWR} \times \overline{X})$$

$$\text{MWRE} = \text{PWR} \times 100$$

Where PWR = Panel's Weighted Rate for each goal statement

$\overline{X}$ = Respondents' mean effectiveness rating for each goal.

Costs associated with continuing education were analyzed according to two major categories: direct and indirect costs. Direct costs were defined as those expenses paid directly by the pharmacists. Indirect costs were expenses paid by sources other than the pharmacists (e.g., continuing education expenses paid through the drugstore or by the employer, pharmaceutical manufacturers, etc.).

Continuing education costs were further analyzed according to the type of educational activity reported by the respondent. The two major categories examined were group and independent programs and activities. Group learning programs and activities were operationally defined as educational activities requiring actual physical attendance and face-to-face contact. Examples of such activities include conferences, institutes, short courses, and educational sessions held in conjunction with conventions. Independent learning courses and activities included those which could be completed without physical attendance or face-to-face contact. Examples of such activities include correspondence courses, audio and video cassettes, journal reading, and examinations. Finally continuing education expenses were classified according to five expenditure categories: tuition and fees, supplies and equipment, travel and subsistence, miscellaneous expenses, and personnel and relief time.

Comparisons of costs and perceived effectiveness of different types of continuing education activities were examined according to program title, type, and sponsorship. For each of these, cost-effectiveness ratios and cost per Continuing Education Unit (CEU) were calculated.

Statistical analyses included the formulation and testing of four null hypotheses. Of these, two hypotheses addressed types of continuing education activities selected by survey respondents and two focused on the cost and perceived effectiveness of selected activities. The following types of continuing education activities were treated as dependent variables: total number of programs reported, total number of programs reported by type (group or independent), total number of CEU's reported, and total number of CEU's reported by type (group or independent). Independent variables examined in the analysis included: demographic characteristics (age, sex, education) and practice characteristics including practice environment (chain, community, institutional), professional experience, year of initial licensure (pre-1962, 1963-74, 1975-82), employment position (owner, administrator, employee), status (full-time, part-time), membership in professional organizations, and community population. One- and two-way analyses of variance statistical tests were used to determine if significant relationships were present between demographic and practice characteristics of respondents, types of continuing education activities selected and costs and perceived effectiveness of these activities.

RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS

Responses representing 43.6% of those surveyed were used for data analysis. A follow-up telephone survey of nonrespondents revealed no major differences in demographics and practice characteristics between those who responded and those who did not.

It was found that continuing education experiences were perceived to be less than 62 percent effective in accomplishing the goals developed in this study. The highest average assessed value of effectiveness given any single goal was 74 percent and the lowest was 44 percent. With an overall effectiveness rating of approximately 62 percent, continuing education experiences examined in this study were not perceived by respondents as being very effective. Although no set standard has been established with which to compare a 62 percent effectiveness rating, a perception that almost 40 percent of one's continuing education experiences have been ineffective is significant. Thus, nearly 40 cents of every dollar expended for continuing education is spent on educational experiences perceived to be ineffective. This estimate is probably conservative since many of the continuing education activities, when assessed on a program by program basis, were perceived to be less than 60 percent effective.

Although it is recognized that there are high quality programs offered, an efficacy assessment of only 62 percent strongly suggests that there are many poor ones as well. One other factor which has a bearing on this effectiveness rating should be recognized. Because Mississippi has a mandatory continuing education requirement, many pharmacists oppose being coerced into participation, and therefore may be biased in thinking that continuing education is ineffective and a waste of time.

The total cost of continuing education according to program type (group and independent) and expenditure category was also calculated. Pharmacists in this study reported spending a total of $32,816 for their continuing education in 1982-83. Thirty percent of this amount was paid directly by the pharmacists.

Average total cost to fulfill continuing education requirements for each participant in this study was calculated at $301. With approximately 1,800 pharmacists actively practicing in the state and using $301 as the average total per capita cost spent to fulfill continuing education requirements, an extension of these figures results in a total of over $540,000 as being expended during the period of this study. This figure is somewhat conservative since there are over 2,600 pharmacists licensed to practice in this state. Assuming that all of these licenses are renewed annually, total costs for continuing education escalate to over $780,000. Viewed another way, continuing education costs pharmacists approximately $30 per hour or $300 per CEU. Of these costs, the pharmacists pay $9 per hour while other sources pay the balance. For the most part, these other sources include employers and drug manufacturers. In the case of owners and partners, they are represented as business expenses.

The largest component of the average total cost is represented by personnel and relief time, especially the pharmacist's time. These per capita costs comprise $136 of average total cost with travel and subsistence costs a close second at $127, and tuition and fees at $36.

In an earlier discussion pertaining to the overall effectiveness of continuing education, it was stated that approximately 40 cents for every dollar expended for continuing education was spent on ineffective experiences. Assuming that the total dollar cost for continuing education is $780,000 annually, $312,000 of this total is spent for learning experiences perceived as being ineffective. When cost and effectiveness are viewed from this perspective, the importance of developing and conducting effective continuing education activities, regardless of whether or not attendance is compulsory, is evident.

Up to this point, cost and perceived effectiveness of continuing education have been examined based on overall experiences. A comparison of cost and perceived effectiveness for specific types of continuing education experiences was also made. The assessment of program effectiveness based on type of program resulted in seven of the eleven goals being accomplished more effectively by group programs than by independent learning activities. Average effectiveness assessments for group programs ranged from the highest of 69.8 percent to the lowest of 44.8 percent while those for independent learning activities ranged from 71.1 to 35.2 percent.

Comparisons of cost and effectiveness for programs by type were made based on the calculation of a Cost Effectiveness Ratio (CER) which represented total cost for a program or activity divided by its Overall Effectiveness Value (OEV). OEV's were calculated using weighted values of goals and effectiveness assessments (i.e., the smaller the CER, the more effective and the less costly the activity).

Independent learning activities were found to be almost five times more cost effective than group programs. Average total cost differed by $104 and average OEV's by 0.003. Both of the figures were higher for group programs than for independent activities. These data indicated that group programs cost more than twice as much as independent activities and were perceived to be only slightly more effective.

Although this study did not propose to examine programs beyond the group and independent level, the researcher's curiosity prevailed and programs were further divided into six groupings for examination. In the group category, regional professional meetings had the lowest average CER (125) but also the lowest average OEV (.597). The least cost-effective group programs were live lecture. Journal articles provided the most cost-effective means for the independent learning activities (average CER = 73). Correspondence instruction achieved the largest average effectiveness value (OEV = .613). Audio cassettes were the least cost effective of the independent learning activities (average CER = 340).

Sponsors or providers of continuing pharmaceutical education were also compared based on their cost effectiveness. It was found that journal providers offered the most cost-effective activities (average CER = 75) and the Mississippi Pharmaceutical Association offered the least cost effective (average CER = 605). Programs offered by the Mississippi Society of Hospital Pharmacists were assessed the most effective (average OEV = .755), drug manufacturers the least (average OEV = .572).

Finally, a series of statistical analyses were conducted to determine if significant relationships existed between certain demographic and practice characteristics and the types of continuing education activities selected and their cost and perceived effectiveness. Demographic characteristics such as age, sex, and education did not influence the magnitude of participation measured by total number of programs and CEU's or the participation patterns or preferences for programs by type (group and independent). It was found, however, that certain practice characteristics did influence participation in continuing education. Practitioners employed in chain pharmacies reported a significantly larger number of CEU's than did community pharmacists. The majority of these CEU's were reportedly completed through independent study with significantly larger numbers reported by chain pharmacists than their colleagues employed in institutional and community pharmacies.

The position of the pharmacist within his work setting influenced participation patterns. Administrators reported significantly larger number of group programs than did owners. Although a significant relationship was not found, employees also reported participation in fewer group programs than did administrators.

Community size within which the pharmacist practices influenced the total number of CEU's reported. A significantly larger number of total CEU's were reported by pharmacists practicing in communities with populations greater than 25,000 than was reported by those practicing in communities with less than 5,000 people.

Members of the Mississippi Pharmaceutical Association reported a significantly larger number of group program participation and earned fewer CEU's from independent activities than did nonmembers. Clearly membership in the state pharmaceutical association represents a significant influence on members toward group learning activities.

Statistical tests to determine the relationship of demographic and practice characteristics and program type (group and independent) on cost effectiveness of continuing education experiences revealed that age, sex, and education when compared with program type had no significant influence on the cost effectiveness of program participation. Of the practice characteristics examined, status, year of licensure, membership in MSPhA, and community population, when compared with program category, were found to have a significant influence on the cost effectiveness of continuing education experiences. Even though these relationships were found to be significant, statistical calculations designed to measure the amount of these relationships which could be explained were very small--indicating that other factors not included in these analyses were having a greater influence than those examined. Additional research in this area is needed to determine and analyze these factors.

The analysis of cost and effectiveness cannot tell us which continuing education programs pharmacists should or will engage in, for this choice is up to the individual. The analyses and comparisons of cost and effectiveness offered here, however, do provide a framework for organizing information about the cost, effectiveness, and efficiency of such activities. With these results providers and consumers of continuing education activities and policymakers can make more enlightened decisions.

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BEYOND AMBULANCE DRIVING: A CONCEPTUAL AND EMPIRICAL PERSPECTIVE ON ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM PLANNING THEORY

Roger Boshier*

INTRODUCTION

A fundamental tenet of adult education concerns the importance of diagnosing and satisfying (usually individual) needs. Adult educators speak of program planning as a democratic and collaborative process in contrast to curriculum development where educators impose "their" course content on learners. The program orientation of adult education stems from widely accepted assumptions concerning the characteristics of adult learners and can be traced to the liberal and democratic beliefs of scholars such as Lindeman (1926) and Mansbridge (1944). Perhaps the best known exemplar of this approach is Knowles (1970) who relies on developmental psychology and findings gleaned from the group dynamics movement.

Adult education is notoriously atheoretical and anti-intellectual but, for program planners, the idea that adults' motives for participation stem from needs related to the learner's sex and place in the life cycle, has considerable appeal. During World War II there was a considerable amount of "imposed" training aimed at ameliorating large-scale social problems. After the war Havighurst (1947) published Developmental Tasks and Education which was congruent with the ethos of the third force psychology impelled by wartime horrors and the extraordinary (and still relevant) insight of Marxian psychoanalysts like Fromm (1942). Havighurst spoke of developmental tasks and "dominant concerns" associated with different stages of the life cycle. Thus in "early adulthood" adults were supposed to be "selecting a mate", "learning to live with a marriage partner", and "starting a family". In "middle age" women were supposed to "function" as a wife, homemaker and mother. Erikson (1950) was more careful than Havighurst and, in his eight stages of "man" described psychological crises that must be resolved, rather than social roles occupied throughout the life cycle. Despite the middle-class preoccupations of Havighurst's model, the notion that adult life consists of predictable tasks and stages appealed to adult education program planners who, instead of firing brochures and other publicity over an entire social and psychological landscape, could aim well-honed bullets at homogeneous target groups. The notion that motives for participation vary as a function of age and sex fuelled much research. Perhaps the most influential was the survey by Johnstone and Rivera (1965) who, amongst other things, studied the types of courses engaged in by people in different stages of the life cycle. Their Table 8.5 (p. 154) presented the more "obvious" results. "Vocational considerations are of more importance to men than to women, and people turn less and less frequently to adult education for job preparation as they grow older" (p. 155). "Women were more likely than men to use adult education not only to learn home and family life skills, but also to meet new people and to get away from daily routine. With respect to making social contacts, the difference between men and women was particularly wide among participants under thirty". A great many women "use adult education both to cultivate new social relationships and to escape from the repetitiveness of everyday experiences". Boshier and Pickard (1979) found this study was cited the most by writers publishing in Adult Education between 1968 and 1977. Yet, the relevant contingency table contained 72 cells, frequency counts, percentages, but no statistical tests. Some cells contained only four, five, or six interviewees. But, because the claims were congruent with the theorizing of developmental psychologists active in the adult education movement, they seemed to have been readily accepted.

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Johnstone and Rivera presented a large number of contingency tables but failed to fully exploit the psychometric possibilities in the data. Most conclusions were derived by examining differences between percentages and there was no attempt to account for variance in dependent variables of interest. Moreover, their measure of "motivation" was crude and would not pass the more stringent requirements of psychometrics in the 1970's and 80's. The Education Participation Scale (1971) was a modest attempt to overcome some of the difficulties associated with Johnstone and Rivera's work. In its latest form, the E.P.S. (Boshier, 1982) consists of 40 items cast on a four-point scale where participants indicate the extent to which each reason "influenced" them to participate. The E.P.S. has been translated into French and German and, as well as being used in Europe, has been administered in most parts of the English-speaking world. The general form has recently been supplemented by an edition specially aimed at A.B.E. students (Boshier, 1982) and another for prison populations (Boshier, 1983). Instructors using it for climate-setting usually have participants score their own E.P.S. but people using it for research purposes do their own coding and usually gather data concerning sex and age.

The steady accumulation of E.P.S. data in recent years has created a situation where it is possible to examine age, sex and motivational orientations with an instrument with stable psychometric properties. Thus, the purposes of this study were to:

1. Examine the motivational orientations of men and women participants in six age categories
2. Discuss the implications of the results for adult education program planning theory.

METHOD

Letters were dispatched to known E.P.S. users inviting them to send data for inclusion in a master file to be used for norming and other research purposes. Thus far, 54 contributors have provided data collected in Canada, the United States, New Zealand, Ghana, Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong. The methodology used to integrate the data was described in three previous studies based on the master file. In the first, Boshier and Collins (1982) presented norms for 12,191 learners, in the second (Boshier & Collins, 1983) they up-dated the AERC paper and, in the third (Boshier & Collins, 1984) used cluster analysis to examine the empirical foundations of Houle's typology.

In this study, E.P.S. data provided by the 54 contributors listed in Table 1 was sorted according to the standard six-factor scoring key. Next, SPSS RECODE statements were used to assign respondents to one of six age categories (under 20 years; 20-29 years; 30-39 years; 40-49 years; 50-59 years; 60-89 years). Mean E.P.S. scale scores for men and women in each age group were then calculated and plotted as shown in Fig. 1 and 2 which shows scores for the Social Contact and Social Stimulation factors. (The remaining factors are Professional Advancement, Community Service, External Expectations, and Cognitive Interest.)

RESULTS

The master file contained E.P.S. data for 13,442 respondents and information concerning the sex and age of 12,592 of them. Of the 12,592 respondents 3,921 (31.14 per cent) were men and 8,671 (68.86 per cent) were women. There were 856 respondents under 20

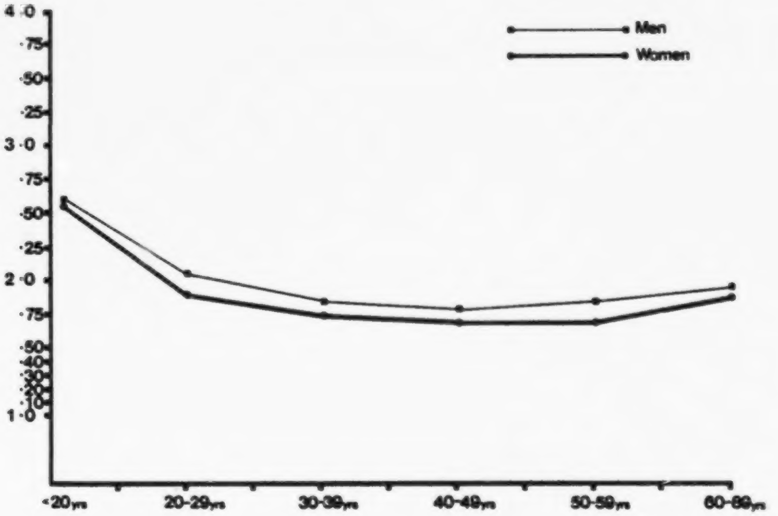

Fig. 1. Mean E.P.S. Social Contact scores for men and women in different age categories

years of age, 5,087 aged 20-29 years, 3,004 aged 30-39 years, 1,721 aged 40-49 years, 1,090 aged 50-59 years, and 834 aged 60-89 years. After mean E.P.S. scores were calculated, analysis of variance was used to test sex and age differences. Because of the large n these were generally significant and will be reported but were of little theoretical significance because even a cursory examination of Fig's 1 to 6* shows that, in general, sex was a poor predictor of motivational orientations. Thus the extent to which 20 year old women were enrolled for Social Contact was about the same as that for 20 year old men. Fig. 1 was typical. The 339 men under 20 years of age had a mean of 2.56. Men aged 20-29 years had a mean Social Contact score of 2.04; the same aged women scored 1.92. The muted U-shaped curve for Social Contact shows

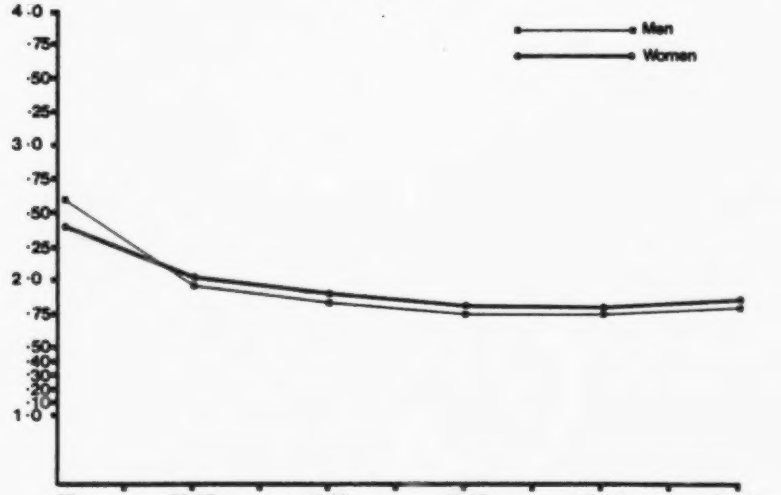

Fig. 2. Mean E.P.S. Social Stimulation scores for men and women in different age categories

that both young and old participants were slightly more inclined to be enrolled for social contact than were middle-aged respondents. The main effects (F = 176.65) were all highly significant both for sex (F = 58.28) and age (F = 191.50) although the two-way interactions were insignificant. However, as explained previously (Boshier & Collins, 1982; 1983) it is variance accounted for, rather than statistical significance, that demands attention. With regard to Social Contact, sex and age yielded a multiple r of .27; thus they explained only 7.8 per cent of the variance in Social Contact scores. In short, people enroll for Social Contact because they want to become friendly with other human beings. Contrary to conventional wisdom and the assertions of Johnstone and Rivera, men, not women, were the most inclined to be enrolled for Social Contact.

With regard to Social Stimulation the same vague U-shaped curve is present. Very young (under 20 yr. old) participants were more inclined to be enrolled for Social Stimulation than middle-aged or older respondents. The main effects (F = 125.12) were significant; differences between men and women were insignificant (F = .08) while differences by age were significant (F = 148.99, $p < .001$). Two-way interactions with age and sex (F = 3.63, $p < .003$) were significant. E.P.S. users perplexed by differences between the Social Contact and Social Stimulation factors should note that men of all ages had higher scores than women on Social Contact while women generally had higher scores on the Social Stimulation factor.

Men and women were not more or less inclined to enroll for Community Service (F = 1.18) although respondents under 20 yrs. of age were more inclined to be enrolled for Community Service reasons than those in other age groups (F = 70.14, $p < .001$). With regard to Professional Advancement, the claims of Johnstone and Rivera (1965) were partially sustained. Older participants were less inclined to be enrolled for Professional Advancement (F = .60, ns); the main effect was largely due to age (F = 167.78, $p < .001$). Working together, sex and age yielded a multiple r of 25, thus accounting for 6.2 per cent of the variance. Men of all ages were more inclined than women to be enrolled for External Expectations. Participants under 20 yrs. old had higher External Expectations scores than middle-aged or older respondents. Both sex (F = 87.92) and age (F = 164.53) contributed to the main effect (F = 157.73, $p < .001$). In the two-way analysis of External Expectations variance, interactions between age and sex were significant (F = 4.12, $p < .001$) but accounted for only 7 per cent of the variance. Perhaps the sharpest differences between men and women were found on the Cognitive Interest Factor. Except for respondents under 20 yrs. women of all ages were more inclined to be enrolled for Cognitive Interest than were men (F = 264.12). Older respondents were more inclined to be influenced by Cognitive Interest reasons than were younger participants (F = 55.70). Age and sex largely had separate effects on Cognitive Interest scores; the two-way interaction was insignificant (F = 1.96, $p < .08$).

No doubt sex and age differences were muted because data from contrasting cultures had been amalgamated. But it is relationships that survive the vicissitudes of time and culture that yield powerful generalizations sought by social science theorists. Moreover, a large sample such as the one used here insulates against hasty conclusions that may be locally true but artifactual in the general sense. Combined data transcend particularities and protect the researcher against reckless inferences that can emerge from transient or accidental circumstances that impinge on respondents. The results confirm some conventional wisdom in adult education (for example, that Cognitive Interest "motivation" increases and Professional Advancement "motivation" declines with age). But the most notable result is that sex and age were poor predictors of motivational orientations. Working together, sex and age accounted for only 7.8

per cent of the variance in Social Contact, 5.6 per cent in Social Stimulation, 2.7 per cent in Community Service, 7.0 per cent in External Expectations, 6.2 per cent in Professional Advancement and 4.4 per cent in Cognitive Interest. Even where scores between men and women were statistically significant the difference was never more than .50 on a four-point scale.

PROGRAM PLANNING THEORY

It appears that rapid social change has created problems for life cycle theorists who portray life as an orderly sequence of tasks, needs and associated "motives" for participating in adult education. Age is generally a better predictor of motivational orientations than is sex. Both women and men experience social dislocation and enroll for Social Contact; both sexes use adult education for Community Service reasons which are remarkably consistent across age groups. We do not know about the extent to which Havighurst's and other life cycle models accurately portray the behaviour of men and women at different ages. But the data appear to pose problems for program planning theory which assumes that men or women, or young or old people are differently motivated. The notion of "segmenting" a population by age and sex and then designing appropriate "benefits" (e.g. parenting classes for women aged 20 to 29) appears dubious.

Contrary to popular myth, women were not more inclined than men to be enrolled for Social Contact. Quite simply, people who want social contact simply want social contact. That is why they have enrolled; it has little to do with sex or their place in the life cycle. These results are, in some respects, incongruent with the findings of Johnstone and Rivera. The crudeness of their study may have led to mistakes but a more credible explanation probably resides in the erosion of sexism and ageism in the twenty years that have passed since they gathered their data.

The erosion of sex role differences and the widespread rejection of the notion that older adults should gracefully "disengage" from society are small parts of much larger and profound changes shaping the character of life in the last part of this century. These changes are altering the nature of the adult education enterprise which will soon have to supplement "reaction" with "proaction". Quite apart from the fact men and women in different age groups do not have distinctive motivational orientations, this creates new and interesting problems for program planning theory.

Proactive Program Planning

Adult educators diagnose and then satisfy individual learning needs. It is this democratic ethos that distinguishes us from other parts of the education system. Moreover, it has been widely assumed that needs vary as a function of sex and place in the life cycle. If motivational orientations are manifestations of, or correlated with need states, the results of this study appear to challenge this assumption. But even if needs and motivational orientations are meaningfully related, and programmers avoid the problem by "targetting" programs at people with the need (e.g. for social contact) without worrying about the potential participant's sex or place in the life cycle, conventional planning theory is still tenuous. During times of social inertia adult educators could reasonably assume that future needs would be a linear extension of present or past needs. Thus, in typical program planning courses a need is portrayed as a gap or deficit between an actual and ideal state. Participants are presumed to behave in accord with principles of homeostasis; a deficit creates a tension state which impels participation followed by release when the need is satisfied. Adult educators need to remain sensitive to the phenomenological world that impels the behaviour of participants but, at the same time, realize that homeostatic processes may disable learners by preparing them for a future that has already passed.

Futurists cannot predict the future with much precision but nearly everyone agrees that the only constant is change. This is an overworked cliche but rarely a day goes by without a reminder of its truthfulness. In this context, can the adult education movement continue serving human and societal needs by behaving as ambulance drivers who arrive at the scene of the psychological, social or international accident, after the damage is done? The "reactive" approach of modern North American program planning theory was born in the slow-paced 1920's . Is this a viable posture for the future and, if not, what modifications are needed? Space constraints inhibit our ability to respond here so the reader is referred to work in progress (e.g. Boshier, 1980; Pipke, 1981). But, in short, it is contended that the North American preoccupation with individual learner needs was a luxury of affluence congruent with the narcissism of the 1960's, the radical individualism of urban-industrial capitalism and third force psychologies emphasizing self actualization. At a superficial level the preoccupation with individual learners may appear liberal, socially correct and psychologically comfortable. But assumptions buttressing "reactive" adult education may be faulty because there is good evidence that adults are as motivated by a need for heterostasis as they are by homeostasis. Moreover, quite apart from psychological considerations, the turbulent and dangerous nature of the socio-technological environment and a dangerous deepening of the "world problematique" has created a need for innovative learning. "Maintenance" or "shock" learning, as described by Botkin, et. al. (1979) is the learning of fixed rules for recurring situations. It is essentially reactive and buttressed by assumptions similar to those in orthodox adult education program planning. Innovative learning may be understood by contrasting it to adaptation. Whereas adaptation involves a reactive adjustment to external pressure, anticipation - a central component of innovative learning - suggests preparation for the future and the active consideration of trajectories associated with a multiplicity of long-range futures. Innovative learning emphasizes the future, not just the past. Its essence lies in selecting desireable events and working toward new alternatives. Reactive educators largely see the future as a linear extension of the present, whereas most evidence challenges these perceptions.

If adult educators supplement reactive with proactive approaches, values will be important because programmers will not be mere technicians "responding" to needs. Despite the occasional chorus of protest from small groups in the adult education movement, reactive programming and maintenance learning perpetuate current values. If adult educators shift from a reactive to a proactive posture there will have to be vigorous debate and sustained scholarship concerning values and ethics. Moreover, North American researchers will have to follow the lead of colleagues elsewhere and develop paradigms that incorporate and quantify macro-level societal variables that are already transforming the adult education enterprise.

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SELF-DIRECTED ADULT LEARNING : A CRITIQUE OF RESEARCH AND THEORY

Stephen Brookfield

By almost any measure conceivable, research into self-directed adult learning must constitute the chief growth area in the field of adult education in the last decade. The Commission of Professors of Adult Education recently established a task force on self-directed learning, Tough's Intentional Changes (1982) records nearly fifty follow-up surveys since his initial investigation of self-teaching (Tough, 1967), and there now exists a widely replicated instrument purporting to estimate readiness for self-directed learning (Guglielmino, 1977). This paper argues that it is time to cease reinventing the self-directed learning research wheel and to accept that the propensity and capacity of many adults to conduct learning projects is well proven. A spirit of self-critical scrutiny needs to be infused into this developing field of research. To this end, four criticisms are offered together with suggestions for shifts in the research paradigm governing this field.

Self-Directed Learners and Middle Class Lifestyles

The middle class nature of the groups of adults assembled as samples of self-teachers, self-directed learners or autonomous learners, is one of the strikingly consistent features of research studies in this area. Tough's initial study (1967) surveyed the self-teaching projects of 40 college graduates and his later samples have been drawn from educationally advantaged populations. Groups surveyed by other researchers include professional men, pharmacists, teachers, parish ministers, university and college administrators, clergy, degreed engineers, and nurses. If we take these studies to comprise the research universe for investigations into self-directed learning, then our resultant generalisations will have a culture and class-specific level of generalizability. We certainly cannot claim statistical representativeness for these groups in terms of the total American and Canadian population. The great majority of individuals in these samples have attained an educational level well above the average. To assume that the behaviors exhibited by this educationally advantaged collection of adults will be displayed by adults from a range of different class and ethnic backgrounds is, to say the least, highly questionable.

Indeed, to talk of the adult's (in a generic sense) propensity for self-directed learning on the basis of research into samples comprized chiefly of middle class Americans is a dangerous act of intellectual ethnocentrism. Very few researchers have chosen to investigate the self-directed learning activities of working class

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adults in America. Even fewer have researched self-directed learning among ethnic groups such as Blacks, Puerto-Ricans, Hispanics, Asians or American Indians. The self-sufficient aspects of immigrant cultures (for example the Chinese) would seem to offer fascinating material for an inter-cultural analysis of self-directedness among immigrant groups in an alien culture. Finally, the comparative study of self-directed learning in different societies remains conspicuous by its absence. Tough's Intentional Changes (1982) does administer the same research instrument at the same time with three groups of adults drawn from Canada, the United States and Britain and is a step in this direction. Even here, however, the research focus is not specifically on self-directed learning and Third World cultures are not covered.

One explanation for the exclusion of working class or ethnic minority adults from samples of self-directed learners has to do with the appropriateness of the research instruments used in such studies. This bring me to the second, and major, criticism of research into self-directed learning - the nature of the research instruments adopted.

Methods of Investigation

Empirical research into the activities of self-directed learners has been methodolatorous in the extreme in its commitment to measurement scales, structured interview schedules, questionnaires and prompt sheets. The great majority of studies in this area replicate a modified version of one of the instruments (comprizing a mix of structured interview schedules and prompt sheets) of one of the major surveys conducted by Tough. A more recent trend has been to administer the self-directed learning readiness scale to a variety of populations.

There are several consequences arising out of this emphasis on the adoption of quasi-quantitative instruments. The first of these concerns the way in which such instruments become self-defining regarding the learning activities they uncover. If unequivocal, quantitative measures of learning are sought by the researcher it is likely that subjects will (perhaps unwittingly) concentrate on recalling learning projects which seem to meet the interviewer's expectations as enshrined in the research methodology. Hence, the finding that learning projects most commonly originate in the learner's being assigned an action goal (Tough, 1968), usually of a non-vocational nature, may be the result of researchers presenting examples of easily identified psychomotor skills projects when discussing 'typical' learning projects with their subjects at the outset of an interview. It is much easier for an adult to recall the assistants consulted, the time spent, the goal setting procedure used, and the non-human materials which were most helpful, if that individual is describing the process by which a car was repaired or a basement rewired. External, behavioral indices of learning (number of hours spent, number of assistants consulted, number of books read) become much harder to obtain and more ambiguous in character if we seek, for example, to explore an individual's development of aesthetic appreciation, raising of political consciousness, or developing of interpersonal sensitivity.

A second consequence arising from researchers adopting formalized measures of self-directed learning, administering an interview schedule in a standardized fashion, or presenting a self-completion questionnaire to subjects, is that of intimidating those learners unused to such investigative hardware. Working class adults or members of ethnic minority, immigrant groups who are confronted with scales, prompt sheets, or questionnaires, will likely be suspicious of such devices which are more commonly associated with the world of bureaucracy and welfare officialdom. Yet studies of self-directed learning have relied heavily on structured interview schedules and pre-coded categories of response into which are fitted subjects' perceptions concerning their learning. Lists of self-directed learning projects, definitions of major learning efforts, lists of individuals typically assisting in the conduct of self-directed learning, lists of reasons for starting learning projects, various prompt sheets - all of these have been presented to self-directed learners in an attempt to elicit information about learning efforts.

Using such standardized instruments with groups of working class learners or adults from certain ethnic minorities will lead to these individuals regarding researchers with suspicion and annoyance and will hardly further an authentic engagement in the research encounter by the adults concerned. In my own research into successful independent learning conducted by adults of low educational attainment (Brookfield, 1981, 1982) an open-ended, conversational style of interviewing was adopted. Similar styles of interviewing with adult non-readers have been used by Holmes (1976) and Fingeret (1983). These three studies also all used an inductive approach to data analysis and theory generation.

A third result of applying strictly defined and tightly administered quantitative measures in the investigation of self-directed learning concerns the absence of any attention to the quality of learning. The result of the understandable desire to estimate the number of hours adults spend in conducting their own learning has been a lack of any awareness regarding the quality or effectiveness of such learning. In particular, there has been no major investigation which has attempted to estimate the congruence or disjunction between adults' own judgements concerning the effectiveness of their self-directed learning and its effectiveness as estimated by some objective measure. Unequivocal measures will, admittedly, be hard to find for all examples of learning projects conducted in a self-directed mode. How, for example, to judge a person's deliberate perusal of the works of Blake, Mozart, or Van Gogh? In projects concerned with developing psychomotor skills, however, it would not be difficult to devize valid and verifiable indices by which to judge adults' success. Even in more contentious, hard to measure kinds of learning projects there is one reasonable measure - judgement by experts - which might be applied. Using this device it is not hard to imagine a study in which learners' perceptions regarding the success of their learning might be compared with the judgements made by experts in the area studied.

It might also be possible to devize a study recording the reactions of individuals crucially affected by an adult's self-directed learning efforts such as peers, intimates, and work colleagues. Such a study would meet some of the objections raised in the next section regarding the individualistic emphasis of most of this body of research. Whatever the research device used, it is important that researchers pay more attention to the quality of self-directed learning and that they wean themselves away from a fixation with estimating its quantity. Given that most criticisms of self-directed learning theory and practice voiced by institutional representatives focus on the apparent defects and ineffectiveness of such learning, studies investigating the quality of self-directed learning must assume a high position on the agenda of research priorities.

Finally, on this matter of determining the quality of learning, it is noticeable that the literature on adult learning projects does not address the question of the innate value or worth of various learning activities. The individual or societal benefits of different learning activities are not discussed by most documentors of self-directed learning, yet it is surely important to raise the question as to whether a self-teaching project on, say, fascism should be considered as of equivalent research significance as learning how to wire a basement. These activities are discreet and separate and to investigate both using the same measures of time spent, number and type of assistants used, or goal setting procedure is methodologically dubious.

This raises, of course, moral and political questions which are strictly outside the realm of methodological discourse. What is methodologically important to consider, however, is the implicit manner in which research designs often come to treat all learning projects as possessing equal significance to the learner. In their internal characteristics, their personal meaning to the adult concerned, and their wider societal influence, projects are very different. To compare dealing with divorce or bereavement with learning how to repair a car is methodologically unsound. Similarly, organizing a political advocacygroup is an activity of a very different order from, say, becoming expert in Armenian cuisine. The danger of emphasising mechanical aspects of learning projects is that of coming to regard all self-directed learning activities as exhibiting some kind of conceptual or substantive unity. The examples quoted above show the absurdity of such a proposition.

Social Contexts of Self-Directed Learning

The focus of research into self-directed learning is, not surprisingly, the individual learner. In the attempt to present an unequivocal definition of such learning as the intentional pursuit of clearly specified learning goals with the learner exercising control over the content and method of learning, an almost exclusive emphasis has been placed on the individual aspect and isolated nature of such learning. This stress on self-directed learning as conducted by the individual learner has meant that subsequent research findings have presented the individual as a creative, 'cordon-blue' chef of learning. Assistants are frequently relegated to a position of subordinate importance (the work of Tough is a welcome and important exception to this fault) as the individual learner is conceived as a master cook choosing ingredients (resources) and blending these into a highly distinctive, individual dish (the project).

This emphasis has meant that the social setting for a great deal of self-directed learning has been ignored. In concentrating attention on the features of individual learner control over the planning, conduct and evaluation of learning, the importance of learning networks and informal learning exchanges has been forgotten. A recently published analysis of adult self-directed learning occurring in a group mode (Brookfield, 1984) has documented the community based nature of much self-directed adult learning. Fingeret (1983) has also demonstrated the importance of informal learning networks among adult working class learners, this time in the acquisition of literacy skills.

The Recovery of Control

The final theme in this critique of research into self-directed learning is avowedly non-methodological in that it is concerned with the lack of attention devoted by researchers in this field to the considerable social and political implications raised by their studies. It is apparent that many adults are devizing, conducting and evaluating much of their own learning, apparently to their own satisfaction. In an era of compulsory schooling, of mass higher education, of increasing professionalization, accreditation and certification, this is a finding of deep significance. It suggests that the formal educational system enjoys much less of a monolithic hegemony on learning conducted in our society than might be supposed.

It also causes educators to pause and examine their own practice, to ask themselves how necessary is their presence for learning always to occur, and to consider how they might employ such professional expertise as they have to support self-directed learning.

Finally, it is important to reaffirm that the conceptual and practical heart of self-directedness is the control over learning processes and curriculum content exercised by the learners themselves. The act of self-directed learning - of deliberately choosing to acquire certain skills, knowledge or affective dispositions - must be one of the most fundamental ways in which we define what it means to be fully human. It is through learning that we create our own personhood and construct our social environment. Once adults believe that the act of learning can be undertaken without the approval or assistance of professional educators, and that the locus of control can remain centred in the adult learner, than a realization is created that adults have the power to alter their individual and social environment, and to create their own reality.

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Program Planning As Technology In Three Adult Education Units

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Program planning is a process that is recognized as a vital part of adult education (Houle, 1972; Verner, 1962) and is perhaps one of the features of adult education that helps distinguish it from pre-adult education. Program planning can range from a highly formal undertaking in an organization to a highly informal undertaking on a personal or individual basis. The study of program planning has usually occurred within an organizational context or at an abstract level. These kinds of studies include some emperical efforts and many "how to" approaches as summerized by Busky and Sork (1982). Because various authors have attempted to describe one model of program planning they have sought and found comparable phases of activity at conceptually abstract levels and thus produced similar models.

This investigation was undertaken to search for variability in program planning so that it might be considered as a variable in the study of adult education organizations. To aid in the search for variability program planning was conceptualized as technology which was defined as the actions taken by humans to transform animate and inanimate objects (Perrow, 1967). Studies of organizational technology have debated its role and effect (Hage and Aiken, 1969; Harvey, 1969; Hickson, et al., 1969; and Hunt, 1979) with recent writings describing its place as an organizational variable of importance (Littner, 1980; Mintzberg, 1979). Variability of technology has been posited as a typology of three kinds: longlinked — where serial interdependence, instrumental perfection, standard products, repetition and constant production rates are its characteristics; mediating — where client linkage, complexity, extensiveness and standardization are its characteristics; and intensive — where variety in techniques, feedback and change are its characteristics (Thompson, 1967).

Using these three kinds of technology and seven program planning operations synthesized from adult education literature (Houle, 1972; Knowles, 1980; Pennington and Green, 1976; and Robins, 1977) a framework for program planning variation was created which contained 82 discrete planning tasks categorized according to task harmony with program planning purpose and agreement with technology characteristics. This framework was used to analyze data from thirty in-depth interviews undertaken as part of case studies of three adult education units. Employment of the concept of technology provided a way to deal with variation in program planning.

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METHOD

Within this framework a qualitative method of case study was employed for three reasons. First, contextual settings of the adult education units and their organizations could be established. Second, a detailed account of program planning was determined to be more useful than a statistical study of population trends in order to describe variation in program planning. Third, it was desirable that respondents described what they did in planning programs rather than reacting to an instrument that might tend to suggest categories of processes. In addition to conducting interviews about planning, other interviews were conducted and documentary research was undertaken to corroborate data.

These efforts combined to produce a case study of adult education units in a school district, a community college, and a university. These units were selected to provide greatest variation in program planning and avoid finding the same technology that might exist in three similar units. In order to remove geography as a source of variation, subjects were selected that shared either part or all of their geo-political service area with one another.

The interviews about program planning were tape recorded and conducted in two phases. In the first phase the interviewee was encouraged to lead the discussion by the interviewer asking, probing, nonspecific questions such as "and then what did you do?" In the second phase, after the interviewee signaled that he or she had given all information possible, the interviewer referred to the program planning operations to ensure all areas of program planning had been covered.

Other interviews about the relationship between an adult education unit and its organization were conducted with unit and organizational heads. These interviews were structured in that pre-selected topics were covered and they were conversational in that the responses were open ended. Twenty three program planning interviews and ten organizational interviews were conducted.

In addition to the interviews, reports, minutes of meetings and other documents were reviewed and analyzed. Historical, contextual and descriptive information about each unit and organization helped in understanding the organizational role of each unit and how that role affected unit technology.

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Data analysis included reviewing and indexing interviews so that program planning tasks could be identified and classified according to the technology operations framework described above. A count of tasks so classified provided a measure of relative use of a technology in each unit. The totals of different tasks reported in Table 1, demonstrated that respondents in each unit had a distinct preference for certain kinds of tasks.

Homogeneity of planning tasks was important because conceivably a unit's preference could be a total of unrelated preferences of individual respodents within a unit. Intrapersonal homogeneity was expressed as a percentage derived by dividing the number of tasks in the technology in which a respondent scored highest by the total tasks reported by that individual. Interpersonal homogeneity was calculated by dividing the number of tasks reported by an individual and classified in the units' predominate technology, by the total number of tasks reported in a unit, thus providing some indication of individual conformity to a unit's preferred technology. The mean percentages of both measures are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 1

TOTALS OF TASKS DISTRIBUTED BY UNIT AND TECHNOLOGY

	School District Technology			College Technology			University Technology		
	L	M	I	L	M	I	L	M	I
Total of Different Tasks	20	20	22	12	33	28	12	18	18
Total of Tasks Reported	45	30	16	29	63	40	14	25	57

TABLE 2

MEAN PERCENT INTRAPERSONAL AND INTERPERSONAL HOMOGENEITY BY UNIT

Unit	Mean Intrapersonal Homogeneity	Mean Interpersonal Homogeneity
School District	64	49.7
College	53.3	47.2
University	63.9	63.9

The analysis of these data and data about a unit's concext provided these findings.

1) Program planning was accomplished in similar ways by individuals within a given unit. The degree of conformity varied among units and program planning was not a standardized undertaking. However, few individuals exhibited great deviation from a technology pattern used by the unit by which they were employed. 2) Program planning was a consistent undertaking for an individual. Most of the respondents' reported tasks were classified within a person's dominate technology preference. 3) Program planning was an idiosyncratic undertaking within the limits of a technology pattern. While respondents did not deviate from a preferred pattern to any large degree they did exhibit personal preferences for tasks with a pattern. and 4) Each unit studied was attempting to integrate itself with its organization.

Thompson's classification of technologies was inadequate to describe program planning in adult education because that classification assumed that pure types were evident in specific organizations and that technologies were not mixed. Data from this study indicated that technologies were mixed in adult education units.

DISCUSSION

The problem of mixed technologies or a "pure type" of technology deserves some discussion. Thompson in proposing the three technologies did not claim these were the only existing technologies. Nor did he claim that a given organization would use one or another of them. He strongly implied singular usage as he provided examples of pure types and ignored the possibility of mixed types except for one sentence. This present study has demonstrated that mixed technologies exist in all organizations studied which may be due to a common public education setting. Perhaps adult education units in private business, religious, or military organizations would exhibit a stronger tendency toward some pure type.

The question is "why are mixed technologies employed by the units studied in this investigation?" Mixed technologies provided flexibility in planning programs. Although there may be a preferred technology in each unit, there is not an exclusive technology employed. The nature of the adult education enterprise itself is characterized as diverse and may strongly influence the use of mixed technologies. Consideration or use of only one technology could severely limit the ability of a unit to produce diverse programs for diverse clients.

Even though Thompson's classification did not adequately describe program planning, it was helpful in classifying tasks that produced patterns of technology for each unit. These patterns of technology may have been a reflection of the kind of program usually produced by each unit, or they may be the consequence of following a preferred program planning model.

Each of these technology patterns were substantially different from one another. The school district unit preferred a technology pattern that was rapid, efficient, and able to meet clients wants. Six of the eight interviewees in this unit were classified as showing a preference for long-linked technology. The college unit preferred a technology pattern that emphasized linking clients and resources in order to solve community problems with little or no reported concern for rapid planning. Six of the eight interviewees were classified as showing a preference for mediating technology. Both the school district and college units used external resources to a greater extent than did the university unit. The university unit used a technology pattern that tied its programs to the expert and other resources of the organization. All interviewees in this unit demonstrated a preference for intensive technology.

These patterns provided fundamental differences that were reflected in the way operations were performed. Even though some individuals within each unit deviated from the technology pattern of their unit, there was a degree of overall planning agreement.

Just as there were explanations for use of mixed technologies, there are possible explanations for use of identified technology patterns. The matter of unit leadership is a factor in organizations. Each of the unit heads articulated a definite preference for some pattern of program planning. Following the notions of organization roles, norms and values, and inducements/ contributions contracts, individuals tended to use the pattern valued and normally used in the organization (Katz and Kahn, 1966). Most individuals interviewed in study demonstrated a preference for a technology pattern depending on the prevalent pattern used within a given unit.

An alternative and interesting explanation of technology pattern involves organizational purpose and the nature of its clientele. These elements may influence each of the units to use a technology pattern familiar to the organization. In North American society, the nature of the primary clients and the technology used in each of the organizations studied are essentially different from one another. The school district has clients that are usually children from ages five to eighteen and uses a repetitive, standard technology. The community college has clients that are usually people from varied backgrounds with varied objectives in life and uses a linking technology. The University has clients that are usually people who have some interest in highly specialized areas of study or training and uses a technology that involves experts because of the specialized nature of its educational programs.

The fact that each of the units and organizations studied are attempting some degree of integration also had an effect upon the use of organizational technology. One way to integrate with a unit's organization is to act like the organization in as many ways as possible. One of those ways is using an organization's technology and modifying it where needed. The modification process may result in use of mixed technologies or a technology pattern detected in each organization.

Thompson's classification facilitated an analysis of data, which indicated there is technology patterns and variation among and within adult education units. It also allowed an analysis of program planning profiles among and within interviewee groups and the classification system enabled differences in program planning to be described in a systematic manner.

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Labor's Challenge to Education: The Case of Texas

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From its earliest years, the American labor movement has articulated a challenge to the educational establishment: that it live up to the ideals of a democratic society by opening its doors to children of the working class on an equal footing with children of the elite. Its demands have included an end to child labor, universal free public schooling, free textbooks, and today, sufficient funds to guarantee quality teaching.

The field of adult education, too, has been a target of labor's concerns, especially when it has turned its attention from the education of children to the education of its own members. The challenge has been similar: that workers' organizations and their tax-paying members be provided the same educational opportunities offered to business, agriculture and other groups. The challenge has intensified in recent years as unions have turned increasingly to colleges and universities for educational assistance in the form of degree programs in labor education.

(Labor education is defined here as educational programming (under whatever auspices) designed to enable workers to participate more effectively as workers, union members, and citizens in the community. Labor studies is commonly used to refer to credit or degree-granting programs in labor education, excluding apprenticeship and vocational courses. Labor studies curricula typically include "tool" subjects like collective bargaining as well as broader social science topics like contemporary urban issues or labor economics.)

Labor's interactions with institutions of higher education tend to be colored by the persistent problem that adults with lower incomes and little formal education are least likely to be served by our burgeoning adult education enterprises -- what at least one researcher has called the "class bias" of adult education (Cross, 1981; p. 80). This paper summarizes the preliminary results of research on union/community college relationships in Texas with a view toward shedding light on this problem of class bias. It seeks to answer such questions as: Why did Texas unions turn to degree programs at colleges for the training of their membership? (In other words, what did the colleges have to offer workers' organizations that they could not provide for themselves?) What factors account for the success or failure of cooperative labor studies programs between unions and community colleges? What can these factors tell us about class bias in adult education?

METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

There are a wide variety of instances of labor education in Texas, both within and external to unions. The research reported here, however, is limited

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to credit programming in labor studies as it has been instituted in community colleges throughout the state.

The study consisted of a combination of historical inquiry and other qualitative methods (interviews, participant observation, etc.). Documents of individual unions and the Texas State AFL-CIO, as well as other records located in the labor archives at the University of Texas at Arlington, provided information on labor's historic involvement in educational activities in the state. Several secondary sources supplemented this primary information. Enrollment records and other documents were also available from the colleges with labor programs, and several individuals kindly gave me access to their own files.

Between September 1983 and January 1984, interviews were conducted with labor officials, college faculty and administrators, and union members and others who have participated in labor education classes. An attempt was made to observe on-going classes at the relevant community colleges. Ironically, since no courses were offered during the term of this research, this was not possible. However, I did attend educational programs conducted by individual unions and the AFL-CIO and there spoke with unionists who had taken credit courses in the past. My own experience as a participant in and instructor of labor education classes during the past six years supplemented these other means of data collection.

The approach taken here differs from the dominant method of studying class bias in adult education, which tends to consist of investigation of the characteristics, attidudes, and behavior of individual adults (e.g. Aslanian & Brickell, 1980; Boshier, 1977; Morstain & Smart, 1974). The approach here is based on the notion that participation takes place in an institutional, social, economic, and political context which is inseparable from individual decisions to participate or not participate. In other words, participation is a holistic phenomenon that should be studied as a whole. Other researchers in the area of adult education have recognized the need for in-depth, historical, and case-study data to provide a more dynamic picture of participation, and a few good models do exist (like Mezirow, Darkenwald, & Knox, 1975). Though the findings of this particular research are limited by its confinement to one state and one kind of programming, and its preliminary nature, it is hoped that it may produce ideas for future productive research.

FINDINGS

A combination of factors has made Texas a state of relatively low rates of unionization. But the difficult struggle for survival has not precluded -- and may have enhanced -- attention to education. For example, at the 1929 convention of the Texas State Federation of Labor, Spencer Miller, Director of the Workers' Education Bureau and active in the Adult Education Association, succeeded in getting a resolution passed to consider a program of workers' education based on the California union-state university cooperative vocational program. (The Depression intervened to prevent implementation of the resolution.) In the 1930's, the Federation passed resolutions to consider a labor college with a B.A. degree, a second to cooperate more fully with the federal government's workers' education program, and a third to create its own education department. But as late as 1941, a historian could write, "This movement brought no outstanding results and the education program was left largely in the hands of local groups and the Dallas Central Labor Council had the only local activity worthy of note" (Allen, 1941, p. 144).

The internal educational activities of Texas unions have increased over time. Today the State AFL-CIO has a full-time education director and one of the more dynamic education programs in the country. The state's largest unions and Central Labor Councils often conduct their own education programs.

In the 1960's events in Texas were influenced by an important development at the national level: the introduction of Associate degree programs in labor studies at community colleges around the country. Labor began to refer to community colleges as its "natural allies": they were open-admission, low tuition schools that served a relatively low-income student body among whom adult learners were numerous. Further, they had assisted unions in the past with non-credit and apprenticeship/vocational classes. A significant role was played by the national offices of two labor organizations in initiating degree programs in labor studies at Texas community colleges: The United Automobile Workers' Education Department in Detroit assisted in setting up a program at Tarrant County Junior College in Fort Worth in 1975 (one of the earliest such efforts). The AFL-CIO's George Meany Center helped set up one of its pilot programs,whereby union members could earn an Associate degree in labor studies as they completed their apprenticeships, at the College of the Mainland in Texas City in 1980. Other community and junior colleges around the state have offered credit courses in labor-related topics on an ad hoc basis, either by creating new courses or modifying the content of existing ones.

Why did unions in Texas respond to these opportunities? One part of the answer is, simply, that the approximately 700,000 union members in the state, who represent 11% of the workforce, are extremely scattered geographically. The expense of attending regional union schools is thus prohibitive for many. The enormity of the task of providing needed education and research has led local union officials to seek help from "friends of labor" in their own communities. Since there are few of such "friends" in institutions of higher education in Texas, those who do teach and do research about unions are fairly visible to local labor leaders. Their presence at community colleges went a long way toward attracting labor's interest.

According to union leaders I interviewed, the benefits of establishing degree programs in labor studies would be several, and not too different from those described by unions nationally: credentials "to allow union leaders to be on an equal footing with the management people they're dealing with"; knowledge and skills for leadership — "An Associate degree in labor studies is worth 8 to 10 years of union experience"; a "consumer good" to offer members (for unions with negotiated tuition assistance arrangements). Underlying some of their comments was the assumption that a certain amount of political prestige might accrue to the union official credited with setting up a degree program for union members.

It is important to note that while the initial approach was usually made by labor, the colleges were eager to cooperate. According to administrators I interviewed, the possibility of increasing enrollments among hard-to-reach clientele was enticing. Also mentioned as a factor was the presence of union leaders on the governing boards of community college districts. Board members who were unionists or who had received labor's campaign support were in a position to facilitate the college's acceptance of this non-traditional program.

Both the degree programs and most of the other experiments with labor studies classes are now "in limbo" due to lack of enrollments. The two colleges with degree programs have removed them from the catalogs, with the option of reinstating them if demand for the courses increases in the future. The remainder of this paper will briefly summarize factors that contributed to this decline and attempt to speculate on their implications.

The fate of the most successful of the programs appears to have been strongly related to the economic downturn of the late 1970's and early 1980's. All of those associated with the program who were interviewed cited the correspondence of enrollment declines and the rising unemployment rate. In some cases, dropping out of the program could be traced directly to the student's having been laid off. Strikes and employers going out of business claimed some of the students. Even in our relatively affluent society, working adults in a large number of occupations exist in a precarious economic situation. This problem is not sufficiently well- understood by many researchers of participation, nor has it been given the weight it probably merits in explaining the low participation rates of the working class.

The colleges varied considerably in the amount of resources they devoted to the program, and their success at recruiting students was traceable in part to the amount of money they were willing to spend on it. None of the programs, however, employed anyone full-time for recruitment, student counselling, or other related activities. They appeared to treat the labor studies program as just one more of their offerings for a "special interest group". The nature of labor studies programs, however, is not the same as degree programs for mid-management or data processors or laboratory technicians. Labor studies degrees cannot be "sold" to a potential clientele on the grounds of guaranteed occupational advancement. As one faculty member put it, there is no immediate financial gratification that results from an Associate degree in labor studies. Union leadership, as one educator writes, "is perhaps the only major profession in the United States for which there is no established and generally recognized sequence of professional training...Union officials learn to cope in the school of hard knocks...and are recruited from the ranks through a political selection process" (Gray, 1975, p. 142). Thus obtaining a certain number of college credits -- or even a degree — carries no promise of a better job.

What this implies is that potential students will be motivated by factors more related to intrinsic interest in the subject matter, or desire to learn something necessary to an office that is already held or sought. To recruit such students is to attempt to alter commonly-held views of college among working adults — to convince them that college instructors can understand the problems of a worker and union member, and pass on useful knowledge to that person. Such recruitment requires, for example, the presence of a college faculty member who can make him/herself known in the labor community and build a reputation of legitimacy. It also requires time: time for some students to take courses, benefit from them, and serve as examples to other potential students of the advantages of schooling in labor studies.

The "culture" of the workers' lives also appears to have an impact on this process. I noticed that an individual's having a friend or union acquaintance with whom to enroll in a course frequently made the difference between participation and non-participation, and retention and dropping out. Further, most former students claimed to have heard about the program originally through word-of-mouth, reinforcing the notion that more traditional written forms of communication with working adults may be ineffective.

Perhaps because of traditional feelings of mistrust between unions and institutions of higher education, problems involving miscommunication sometimes arose. A college administrator complained that "the tail seems to be wagging the dog" when commenting on the role of the labor advisory committee in decision-making. A union official on that committee, on the other hand, felt that the labor members "were letting the college tell us what they'll teach, instead of our telling them." One faculty member said he felt that labor leaders were "intimidated" by being on a college campus and therefore pushed for courses to be held in the union halls. The labor officials said they felt they were being patronized and that recruitment would be easier if classes were held closer to the students' work-places. In the aftermath of the programs' demise, each side was prone to blame the other for not "pushing" the program harder.

More serious than this, though, was that most of the college personnel, in spite of their good-faith interest in seeing the program work, had little direct knowledge of how unions work -- and in particular, of the role that education plays for individual members and for the organization. They appeared unaware of differences among international union policies toward education and of the political implications of some events surrounding the labor studies program.

The presence in some of the local areas of anti-labor sentiment did not, surprisingly, appear to have had much impact on the programs, especially when the community college's governing board contained a pro-union member. However, one aspect of Texas' traditional antipathy toward unions was, I think, a problem: that is, the lack of a strong labor education at the state university, such as is found in northern and midwestern states. Such programs provide trained instructors and good materials for community colleges in their jurisdiction -- a lack that hampered the Texas experiments. Colleges here had to rely on packaged curricula and course syllabi from national sources to a certain extent, and therefore missed opportunities to introduce relevant local material to students.

It was a drawback to the research that I was unable to attend on-going labor studies classes. The impact on the fate of the programs that may be attributed to the in-class experience of the participants can only be guessed at now, from their recollection of past events. Furthermore, it would be useful to know to what extent the interactions of college and union officials affected the quality of the educational experience.

To conclude, it is the tentative finding of this research that one explanation of the class bias in adult education may lie in the real differences in life situations of working- and middle-class adult students. Additional research is needed on the background of labor studies students to see if, in general, their educational preparation and other factors differentiate them from other community college students. Further, follow-up on students who completed courses and degrees would provide useful information on the impact of labor studies on working-class adults. Another clue to educational class bias may lie in the unfamiliarity of workers' organizations to college officials, who are more used to dealing with and participating in professional and business groups. A third avenue that might deserve further investigation is the difference between credit labor studies courses and the more widespread and familiar non-credit union leadership training that has characterized Texas' situation. It is appropriate to ask now, when the credit programs have been in operation here over ten years (and longer in other parts of the country) if degree programs in labor studies have produced results commensurate with the hopes that surrounded their birth and the tremendous efforts that have gone into sustaining them. In the answer to this question may lie some important implications for the education of working-class adults in general.

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THE LEARNING CONTRACT AS A
TOOL FOR DEVELOPING
READINESS AND COMPETENCIES
IN SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to continue investigation into the effects of using learning contracts in graduate level adult education courses in relation to the students' perceptions of their readiness and competencies for self-directed learning, their continuous learning activities and their teaching style. One hundred and sixty-three students from six universities were administered pre- and post-tests and a follow-up instrument. Five major conclusions were drawn from the data. In summary, the use of learning contracts has little impact on students' developing readiness for self-directedness in learning, but does have some impact on developing competencies for self-directed learning.

The ability of adults to be independent learners is one of the key concepts throughout the literature in adult education (Knowles, 1975; Smith, 1982; Tough, 1971). Independence in adult learning has been studied under a variety of terms, such as self-directed learning (Brockett, 1983; Caffarella, 1983; Kasworm, 1982; Knowles, 1975), self-initiated learning (Penland, 1979), self-planned learning (Tough, 1971), and independent learning (Brookfield, 1981). Independent adult learners are able to plan, initiate and evaluate their own learning experiences with or without assistance (Brookfield, 1981; Knowles, 1975; Smith, 1982; Tough, 1971). Independence or self-directedness in adult learning has been studied primarily outside of the mainstream of formal educational practice (Brockett, 1982; Brookfield, 1981; Penland, 1979; Tough, 1971). There have been attempts to integrate this notion with more formal adult education activities (Caffarella, 1983; Kasworm, 1982; Knowles, 1975; Smith & Haverkamp, 1977).

Boud (1981), Tough (1971, 1979) and Hiemstra (1981) have focused on changes which need to take place in institutions of higher education to integrate independence or self-directedness in learning into the formal curriculum. The central theme in Boud (1981) is that one of the primary roles of the teacher is to assist students to take increasing responsibility for their own learning. Tough (1971, 1979) believes we need to view instructors and students as being equal as persons and increase the student's choice of both what and how they want to learn. Hiemstra (1981) has proposed a formal policy statement pertaining to this idea of self-directedness in learning in relation to the training of adult educators. One possible way of accomplishing this integration of independence in learning with formal programs in higher education is to use learning contracts as part of the teaching process (Boud, 1981; Knowles, 1975).

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Caffarella (1983) and Kasworm (1982) have completed studies related to the use of learning contracts for fostering self-directed learning skills of graduate students enrolled in formal adult education course work. Caffarella (1983) focused her investigation on the effect of using learning contracts in graduate courses on the students' competencies for self-directed learning, their continuing learning activities and their teaching style. She found the students had, from their perspective, increased their competencies of self-directed learning. Almost half of the students had used the competencies developed in personal learning experiences outside of the classroom and about two-thirds had changed or anticipated changing the way they teach. Kasworm (1982) examined the development of self-directed learning knowledge and skills, cite or drop, by graduate students enrolled in two of her graduate courses in adult education. She found significant positive gains were made in self-directed learning readiness and skills as noted in the gain scores of the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS), class evaluation and the analysis of observations. However, approximately one-fifth of the students in the study had negative gain scores for the SDLRS.

FOCUS OF THIS STUDY

The purpose of this study was to further investigate this theme of the integration of self-directedness in adult learning and formal education by the use of learning contracts in higher education. The study was built primarily on the work of Caffarella (1983) and Kasworm (1982). Five major research questions were addressed in the study as follows: 1) As a result of using a learning contract format in formal graduate courses in adult education is there a change in the student's readiness and self-perceived competencies for self-directed learning? 2) As a result of using a learning contract format in formal graduate courses in adult education is there a difference in students' readiness and self-perceived competencies for self-directed learning based upon selected variables (e.g., content area of course). 3) What are students' opinions related to the value and worth of using a learning contract format? 4) Has there been any change in the way students teach as a result of using a learning contract format? 5) Have the students used the competencies of self-directed learning in personal learning experiences once they had completed the course?

METHODOLOGY

One hundred and sixty-three students from six universities in the United States comprised thé population for the study. Three instruments were used in the study. One instrument, The Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS), authored by Dr. Lucy M. Guglielmino (1981), is a self-report instrument consisting of Likert-type items. This scale has been demonstrated through previous studies (Guglielmino, 1981; Kasworm, 1982) to be both reliable and valid for diagnosing self-directed learning readiness and on evaluation of programs designed to increase self-directed learning. Two of the instruments used, the Self-Directed Learning Competencies Self Appraisal Form (SDLCSAF) and the Learning Contract Follow-up Survey (LCFS) were developed by the author. Construct and content validity were verified by a team of experts for these instruments. In the first phase of the study the students completed a pre- and post-test of the SDLRS and the SDLCSAF. The instruments were administered by the professors teaching the classes at the beginning and end of the semester. For the purpose of analysis only 83 matched sets of the SDLRS (51% of the original sample) and 130 matched sets of the SDLSCAF (80% of the original sample) were usable. The loss of additional matched sets was due primarily to the administration of only one of the instruments and some students not completing the courses. The total population was mailed a LCFS approximately four to six months after the completion of the course with a response rate of 70%. There are two major limitations to the study. The first is the unevenness of response rate as noted above and the second the lack of control groups.

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A t-test ($p < =.05$) was used to test research questions one and two. A description of how respondents collectively responded to questions 3, 4, and 5 was done with percentages and data from the open-ended questions. The first major finding was there was no significant change in the students' readiness for self-directed learning as measured by the SDLRS. This same finding also held true when variables of course content, previous course work in adult education, use of learning contracts in other courses, the student's age, and the graduate program of the students were controlled for in the analysis procedures. The students did have extremely high mean scores of 241 on the pre-test and 243 on the post-test of the SDLRS. These scores were approximately one standard deviation above the normalized mean.

The second major finding was that there was a significant change in the students' self-perceived competencies for self-directed learning in three areas as measured by the SDLCSAF. These included their ability to: 1) translate learning needs into objectives; 2) identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of objectives; and 3) select effective strategies for using resources. The students' ability to translate learning needs into objectives consistently rose to the surface as a competency that students' perceived increased regardless of the course the student was enrolled in, previous course work in adult education, program of study, or age. The change in the ability to identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of objectives appeared to be the most influenced by the responses of students who had completed courses in adult development and learning. The change in the ability to select effective strategies was influenced most by students who were presently enrolled in courses in methods of teaching adults, and by students ages 30 to 39.

There were significant differences displayed, though minor, in the students' self-perceived competencies for self-directed learning based on the content area of the course in which the student was enrolled, the content area of adult education courses students had completed, and the age of the students. The present course the student was enrolled in had the most effect, in terms of differences noted between the whole population and subgroups, although this effect was minor. Two of the variables studied, having taken other courses using the learning contract approach and the graduate program in which the student was enrolled, made no significant differences in the self-perceived competencies for self-directed learning.

Overall, the students agreed that using a learning contract format (LCF) in terms of its educational value, was worthwhile. Thirty-three percent believed it to be an excellent learning tool, while 40% believed it to be very good, and 18% good. In terms of eight specific learning processes, the majority of the students either strongly agreed or agreed that the LCF was valuable in formal graduate courses. For example, 50% of the students strongly agreed the LCF gave them the opportunity to individualize their own learning; and 48.1% strongly agreed the LCF placed the responsibility for learning more on them than other formats used in formal coursework.

Sixty-six percent of the respondents have changed or anticipate changing the way they teach as a result of using the LCF, and half of the respondents had used the competencies in personal learning experiences outside of the classroom. Some of the changes noted by the respondents in their teaching include: allowing students more opportunity to individualize their learning experience; having them develop objectives and time frames; encouraging more class participation; and using a variety of teaching techniques.

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Five major conclusions can be drawn from the findings. The first is that the use of the learning contract had no effect on the student's readiness for self-directed learning. This could be due in part to the very high pre-test scores (a mean one standard deviation above the normalized mean). Based on Brockett's (1982, 1983) comments on the SDLRS, that the scale is "highly oriented toward learning through books and schooling," (p. 19, 1983), it is not surprising that graduate level students should obtain higher than average scores. These higher than average scores call into question the appropriateness of the use of this scale with people of higher levels of schooling, especially those with graduate degrees. This lack of appropriateness may also be related to what the scale is actually measuring in terms of a definition of self-directed learning as noted by Brockett (1982, 1983).

The second conclusion was that the use of the learning contract only had an effect on three of the twelve competencies of self-directed learning that were studied. Students increased their ability: 1) to translate learning needs into learning objectives; 2) to identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of learning objectives; and 3) to select effective strategies for using learning resources. Of these three competencies, translating learning needs into learning objectives appeared to be the most consistent in terms of the increase in that competency. These conclusions mirror an earlier study by Caffarella (1983) where students perceived they had increased their competencies for self-directed learning to a greater degree in two of the three areas listed above: 1) the ability to translate learning needs into learning objectives and 2) the ability to identify human and material resources. Based on these consistent conclusions, there appears to be certain competencies for self-directedness in learning that can be fostered as part of a formal learning situation and others that in fact may be blocked by this same situation.

The third conclusion was that the changes in students' competencies for self-directed learning based on the content area of the course the student was enrolled in, content area of adult education courses students had completed, the age of the student, having taken other courses using the learning contract approach, and the program in which the students were enrolled were minimal. It appears that the differences that were noted could be traced more to the individual courses and the instructors in those courses, versus any major changes due to the variables studied.

The fourth conclusion was that overall these students believe using a LCF in terms of its educational merit in graduate courses is valuable and worthwhile. This conclusion agrees with the findings of an earlier study by Caffarella (1983) where students also supported this premise, but the agreement was not as strong. For example, in the earlier study 90% of the respondents believed the LCF to be an excellent or very good learning tool, while only 73% believed so in this study. One of the major values of using the LCF was that it allowed students the flexibility to choose what they wanted to learn. This value appears to be related to one of the three competency areas the respondents perceived as having increased (i.e., the ability to translate learning needs into learning objectives). The other two major areas of value (placing the responsibility for learning more on me, and the opportunity to individualize my own learning) do not speak directly to specific competencies of self-directed learning, but rather to those assumptions underlying the whole concept of self-directedness in learning.

The final conclusion is that a large number of these students are presently using the competencies they learned through using the LCF in their present teaching situations and personal learning experience both at work and at home. In comparison to Caffarella's (1983) earlier study, the percentages on both aspects are almost identical. The competencies most noted by students in both the teaching area and their personal life are related to goal and objective setting, using a variety of methods for learning, and having a better perspective on time management of learning. In the teaching area they also stressed the idea of responding more to the needs and desires of their students and allowing them to be more self-directed in their learning. Again, these self-reported changes appear to be related to the major gains the respondents made in their self-directed learning competencies.

In summary, it appears that the use of learning contracts in graduate level higher education has little impact on students' developing readiness for self-directedness in learning, but does have some impact on developing competencies for self-directed learning. This raises a number of issues and questions which need to be addressed.

1. If, in fact, we can isolate specific competencies of self-directed learning that can be enhanced through the use of the learning contracts in graduate classes, how can instructors most effectively foster the development of these competencies in students? Or is the value of using the learning contract format more in the teaching

of an alternative instructional format rather than fostering specific competencies of self-directed learning?

2. What other types of formats, activities, climate setting, and the like could instructors use to enhance other identified competencies of self-directed learning?
3. What should the role be of professors in adult education in furthering the development of students' competencies related to self-directedness in learning? Should professors have this as a major focus or purpose of all course offerings in adult education or would it be more appropriate to stress the development of these competencies in specific courses, depending on the subject matter?
4. If, in fact, we can document that the integration of self-directed learning competencies in graduate programs actually change the practice of students, do these changes really make a difference in helping adults learn and grow?

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Analyzing the Short-Term and Long-Term Effectiveness of Continuing Professional Education

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Introduction

Most of the research on the effectiveness of CPE has framed the question as "Does CPE improve professional performance?" Of course the answer to the question is that some programs result in improved performance and others fail to do so. Published reports have demonstrated behavior change resulting form CPE programs for nurses (Cox and Baker, 1981), dentists (Chambers, et al., 1976), pharmacists (Benfield, et al., 1977), physicians (Stein, 1981), and teachers (Mayer, et al., 1975). In addition, two studies (Inui, et al., 1976; Mayer, et al., 1975) showed improved client outcomes (lower hypertension, more student learning) resulting from CPE programs. Yet there are many CPE programs that do not produce the expected performance improvement (Lloyd and Abrahamson, 1979).

For educators, these contradictory conclusions about the effectiveness of CPE are unsatisfying because they do not aid in understanding how those programs that were successful differed from those that failed. Those who design and evaluate programs need to know what the success of a program depends upon. For this reason, the research framework used in most studies is not likely to produce fruitful results. From a programming perspective, the wrong question is being asked. A more useful research approach would focus on understanding why some programs are more effective than others in improving the performance of professionals. To do this would require defining and measuring the characteristics of the educational program, including the context in which it is embedded and determining how variations in these characteristics are related to the outcomes of interest. The research question in this approach would be "Under what conditions and for which types of individuals are which characteristics of continuing education most likely to improve professionals' performance?" In order to improve the planning and effectiveness of CPE, answers to this more complex question are needed.

A conceptual framework linking CPE and performance has been developed and is described detail elsewhere (Cervero, 1982). The framework borrows several of its key components from the "adoption of inovations" literature which has also focused on understanding how behavior change is brought about in a social system (Rogers and Shoemaker, 1971). The framework proposes that variation in four sets of independent variables would explain variation in the extent of improved performance. The four sets of variables are characteristics of the CPE program, the individual professional, the nature of the proposed change, and the social system in which the professional works. The interplay among these variables is heuristically depicted in Figure 1.

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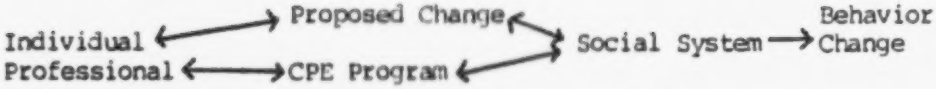

Figure 1. Framework linking CPE and behavioral change

This framework was developed as a method for analyzing the relative success of CPE programs in improving the performance of professionals. The framework falls short of being empirically testable in this form since it describes four generic classes of variables as opposed to operational measure that must be employed in empirical research. The purpose of this study, then, is to operationalize a network of sub-variables within the components, leading to a test of the usefulness of the framework on a practical scale. It should be noted that this study is exploratory in that specific hypotheses are not offered to account for relationships between independent and dependent variables. There is no basis to judge, a priori, which components of the framework are most effective in explaining variations in the dependent variables.

Methodology

The CPE program in this study was developed by the nursing education department in a 500-bed, medical center hospital in a major metropolitan community in the Midwest. This was a six-week-long orientation program, including 33 hours of classroom instruction, designed to prepare recently-hired nurses to practice in their new work setting.

The dependent variable, nursing performance, was measured using a 51-item nursing care quality review instrument. The instrument was developed by the hospital's Quality Assurance Committee and data were collected by Committee members during the participants' first week in practice following the CPE program and again six months later. Data were collected by reviewing the nurses' charts, observing their patients, and interviewing the nurses themselves and their supervisors. The dependent variable is represented as a percentage, which was constructed by dividing the number of items that the nurse performed correctly by the total number of items.

Ten independent variables were measured in this study. Each of four variables related to the CPE program, one component of the conceptual framework, was measured by a single item on a questionnaire. Using a Likert scale, participants rated the program on: its relevance to the needs of their practice, the clarity of its objectives, effectiveness of the faculty, and the match between their learning styles and the educational stragegies used. Four additional variables were measured, those being related to the individual professional component of the framework: age, race, years in professional nursing practice, and highest degree in nursing. A measurement was made of one variable related to a third framework component, nature of the proposed change. Using a Likert type questionnaire item, participants indicated the likelihood of implementing the program goals into their practice. All data for these nine independent variables were collected on forms completed at the program's completion.

The social system, the tenth independent variable, was assessed by measuring the performance of a random sample of staff nurses on each floor where the nurses participating in the educational program were working. The same 51-item nursing care quality review instrument described above was used to collect performance data on a 20 percent random sample of nurses on each floor. The sample size on the floors ranged from three to eight staff nurses. The staff nurses' performance on each floor was aggregated to produce an average floor performance. Since the nurses who participated in the educational program each work on one floor, their relevant social system is the floor on which they work. Thus, for any one nurse the value of the social system variable was the average score of the staff nurses who work on her floor. The rationale for this type of measurement was that the social system will have its effect as the new nurses observe the way the nurses around them practice and, possibly, adjust their own practice accordingly.

A total of 47 nurses participated in the program and constitute the sample for this study. The mean age was 27 years, 98 percent were female, 72 percent were white, 61 percent had a BS/BSN in nursing, and only 9 percent had any previous professional nursing experience. While the size of group (N=47) is relatively small for the multiple regression analysis used in this study, all available participants were used and thus constitute the population.

The primary units of analysis are the components of the framework, rather than the independent variables which compose sub-variables within each component. The sub-variables are specific to the situation and may change depending on the circumstances. Therefore, we wish primarily to make generalizations about the strength of associations between the components and performance. As a secondary concern, we wish to determine the effect of the specific sub-variables for the purpose of possibly using these indicators in future studies. In the multiple regression analysis the variables are entered as sets according to their association with the four components of the framework. Thus, the four variables being used to measure the individual professional are entered first, followed by the nature of proposed change variable, followed by the four CPE program variables and finally the social system variable. This order of analysis permits an interpretation of the effect of the CPE program after accounting for the variation due to the two other components of the framework over which a CPE programmer has less control. The social system variable was entered last because its effect should occur after the CPE program has ended and the nurses begin their work on the floors. Because no significant interaction effects were found, the interpretation of the main effects is straightforward.

Table 1

Percent of Variance Accounted for in Nursing Performance at One Week and Six Months

Variable	1 Week	6 Months
Personal	26.8	33.1
Age	13.2	27.3
Race	12.3	4.2
Highest degree in nursing	1.0	0.4
Years of professional nursing practice	0.3	1.2
Plan to implement goals	6.1	1.3
CPE program	27.1	21.7
Relevant program	10.0	4.1
Clear objectives	9.2	16.3
Teaching strategies match preferences	2.2	0.9
Faculty effective	5.7	0.4
Social system	3.3	7.2
Total	63.3	57.4

Results

The findings displayed in Table 1 describe the amount of variance account for by the four components of the framework and the total amount of variance accounted for by the framework in each dependent variable. While the results are reported in the form of percents for ease of understanding, these percents actually represent the r^2 statistic. Thus, the r^2 for the one-week outcomes is .633 and the amount of variance accounted for is 63.3 percent.

The amount of variance accounted for by the framework is greater at one week (63.3%) than at six months (57.4%). In the context of social science research, the predictiveness of the framework is quite high. At one week, the CPE program variables and the individual professional variables have about an equal effect. However, at six months the effect of the individual professional variables is substantially greater than the CPE program variables. Also, the intent of the nurses to implement program goals has a smaller effect at six months than at one week. Finally, the effect of the social system was greater at six months than at one week.

Discussion

Many studies have attempted to determine the effectiveness of continuing education for a variety of professional groups. Yet, after all this effort, the only valid conclusion has been that some programs are more effective than others. This paper has argued that the question has been improperly framed and that this has caused the conclusion to be ambiguous. The question has made two assuptions that are inconsistent with the realities of continuing education. The first is that "continuing education" is a unitary construct. Researchers reporting the results of single studies, those who have accumulated the results of many studies, and many others who write about CPE wish to make conclusions about "continuing education." This is simply not possible because CPE varies along many dimensions, including purposes, design, and implementation. The second false assumption is that the only variable that affects the outcome is the CPE program itself. While common sense would suggest that these assumptions are not consistent with sound continuing education practice, the research in the field is unenlightened in this regard.

It was necessary to reframe the question in order to provide results that would have meaning and utility to the practice of continuing education. The use of this new framework provides some preliminary evidence regarding the contradictory findings of previous research. First, we found that participants' differential ratings of certain dimensions of the program do make a difference in the program outcomes. Thus, it is likely that in previous studies some CPE programs were more relevant to practice than others and that this produced different levels of effectiveness. Second, we found that variables other than the CPE program influence the outcomes. In the previous studies, there no doubt have been many important variables that were unaccounted for but that had an influence on whether the expected performance improvement was achieved. In connection with the assumptions described previously, this empirical evidence should justify a redirection of research from determining the effectiveness of CPE to analyzing the effectiveness of CPE. Unless this is done. the field will continue to produce research that contributes negligibly to CPE policy, theory, or practice.

While the framework used in this study provided a useful amount of explanatory power, the study had a number of characteristics that limit the generalizability of the results. First, since this was an exploratory study there is no sound theoretical rationale to explain the specific findings of the study. That is, in another study the social system may be found to be the most powerful explanatory variable. As of now, the framework simply serves as a heuristic device to stimulate research questions and organize and research findings. As more research is done, a more fine-grained framework may be built that delineates the interplay among the components and the conditions under which they effectively explain behavior change. Second, the sample size is barely adequate for the number of independent variables used in the regression analysis. It is very likely that the small sample has produced some statistically significant results where none truly exist. While all available participants were used in this study, caution must be applied to the generalizability of the results. Finally, this study did not measure performance change. Rather, it was a post-test only design using correlations to measure the strength of relationships between independent and dependent variables. The effect of nurses' prior ability was unknown and may have influenced the dependent variables. Further research sould use performance change measures, if possible.

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DOES TEACHING STYLE MAKE A DIFFERENCE IN ADULT EDUCATION?

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Introduction

Does the teacher's style have an effect upon student achievement? Teachers differ widely in their classroom practices. While these differing styles have been referred to by various terms, Darkenwald (1982) notes that control and responsiveness are totally independent constructs which can be derived empirically (p. 203). He adds that "it is conceivable that some teachers may put equal emphasis on controlling and responsive behaviors, although studies of school teachers suggest this is unlikely" (p. 203). Since each of these constructs elicits different types of action from the student, it is possible that students will achieve at different rates when exposed to each teaching style. In order to investigate this possibility, the present study sought to examine the relationship between the teacher's adult education teaching style and student achievement in an adult basic education setting.

Related Research

Style refers to a pervasive quality of teaching behavior that persists even though the content that is being taught may change (Fischer & Fischer, 1979, p. 245). Knowles (1970) has suggested that the teacher is the most important variable influencing the nature of the learning climate (p. 41). Kuchinskas (1979) reached a similar conclusion and observed that "the most revealing thing in the classroom was the overwhelming effect of the teacher's style on everything and everybody else" (p. 270). Likewise, in examining teacher aims and opinions Bennett (1976) confirmed that teacher's hold firm opinions about teaching methods and that these relate strongly to classroom practice (p. 78).

Despite the existence of divergent teaching styles, a significantly large portion of the adult education literature supports the collaborative mode as the effective and appropriate style for teaching adults. In this regard the writings of Lindeman (1926/1961), Bergevin (1967), Kidd (1976), Houle (1972), Knowles (1970), and Freire (1970) exhibit many commonalities in the basic assumptions of adult learning. Collectively they argue that the curriculum should be learner-centered, that learning episodes should capitalize on the learner's experience, that adults are self-directed, that the learner should participate in needs diagnosis, goals formation, and outcomes evaluation, that adults are problem-centered, and that the teacher should serve as a facilitator rather than a repository of facts. Although these various authors stress different elements composing this mode, all profess a learner-centered approach for adult education in which the key word is always participation (Lindeman, 1926/1961, p. xvi).

Beder and Darkenwald (1982) found that teachers do teach adults differently from the way they teach children and pre-adults and that most of this variance is associated with the teachers' perceptions related to learner characteristics such as intellectual curiosity, openness, and degree of self-direction (p. 153). Nevertheless, the question still remains of under what conditions are collaborative methods, which are widely discussed in the literature, most effective. To examine teaching effectiveness the ultimate criteria are measures of learner growth (Rosenshine & Furst, 1973) because "it is now becoming recognised that focusing on dimensions of pupil behaviour will probably reveal far more about the effectiveness of teaching than directly studying the teacher" (Bennett, 1976, p. 103).

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Conceptual Framework of Study

The assessment of the relationship between teaching style and student achievement requires two measurement tasks. Since the focus of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of the learning principles advocated in the mainstream adult education literature, the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (Conti, 1978, 1979, 1983) was selected as the instrument to measure the style of the adult education teachers. This instrument yields a score which indicates the degree of teacher support of the collaborative mode as described in the adult education literature. High scores on the instrument are associated with the constructs of initiating, progressive, and learner-centered behaviors while low scores relate to the constructs of responsive, traditional, and teacher-centered behaviors. However, unlike other instruments eliciting teaching style, it was constructed solely from the adult education literature base.

Student measures of achievement were derived from teacher assessments. While this method of data collection lacks the rigor of a pretest/posttest design, it is compatible with realities of the operation of an adult basic education (ABE) program. Most ABE programs are set up to deal with highly diverse students who come to the program with a wide range of needs, abilities, and motivations (Mezirow, Darkenwald, & Knox, 1975, pp. 37-55). Many have a negative orientation toward school, and some especially in English as a Second Language (ESL) have backgrounds which they do not wish to disclose. As a result, in order to maintain a nonthreatening learning environment, certain background data is either undesirable or impossible to gather. Although it could improve the rigor of the research design to have controlling data such as IQ scores or a quantitative placement score on each student, these items commonly do not exist in many operating ABE program.

Recent Adult Education Research Conference sessions have focused on the advantages of collecting data in its natural setting, and Merriam and Jones (1982) have suggested methods of improving the rigor of "soft" data. They suggest that a potential data source should provide information or insights relevant to the research question and facilitate a practical and systematic understanding of the research issues (p. 143). Such data should be an honest assessment of the account, plausible in terms of the assessor's experiences, and internally consistent (pp. 144-145).

The most natural appraisal of students in ABE is that of the teacher. Since the primary academic concerns of most ABE students are reading and math, teachers make an initial assessment in these areas in order to place students. Because of state and federal requirements for funding, the placement level of each student is recorded. Placement assessment is, thus, a necessary competency for ABE practitioners. It is part of the program, and teachers do it on a regular basis. For purposes of this study, it was assumed that ABE teachers perform this task in a similar manner with each student.

Exit scores can be obtained by two methods. Quantitative scores are available on students completing the General Educational Development (GED) test. Passing the test is equated with reading at the twelfth grade reading level. However, for students who have not taken the GED test, teacher assessment ratings are necessary. Just as in student placement, a variety of techniques are used by individual teachers to assess a student's level of achievement at the termination of either the yearly program or student attendance. Regardless of the exact methods used, the teacher has been in direct contact with the student, has observed the student's work, and has interacted with the student. When combined with other possible measurement devices, experience, and professional competence, these place the ABE teacher in a position to make a reasonably accurate assessment of the student's academic level and to consistently assess all students in the class.

The conceptual framework for this study, thus, rests on two assumptions. One is that a definitive body of theory and knowledge exists which suggests that there is an appropriate means of assisting adults in the learning process. The other is that because of the nature of their job, experience, and interaction with students, ABE teachers are capable of accurately and consistently assessing the entrance and exit levels of their students.

Methodology

Data were collected in a two county region of southern Texas. Student information was culled from official student records for the 1981–1982 academic year. All 29 teachers in the study were part-time instructors working in self-contained classrooms. Seven instructed at the basic level; eight taught GED preparation; and 14 were ESL instructors. Fourteen teachers were female, and 15 were male. They averaged 11.5 years of total teaching experience and 6 years of experience in adult education. All held at least a bachelors degree, and 14 had a masters degree. However, only five had any formal training in adult education. The mean age for this group was 37.7.

These teachers instructed 837 students. Of these 115 were enrolled in basic level instruction; 249 were in GED preparation; and 473 were in ESL classes. The student sample contained approximately twice as many females as males. The average student age was 30 with 181 under 20, 308 in their twenties, 223 in their thirties, 84 in their forties, and 41 over 50 years of age. Students ranged in age from 15 to 76 with 17 being the most common age.

Teaching style in the adult education setting was measured by the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS). This 44-item summated scale was distributed to all the teachers in the program by site supervisors at the beginning of the 1982–1983 academic year. Completed answer sheets and data forms were returned in sealed envelopes. Teachers who completed the scale, had been employed by the program in the previous year, and had complete student records were included in the study. The relationship between the teacher's score on PALS and the academic achievement of that teacher's students was examined by analysis of covariance. This statistical technique allowed for exit scores to be adjusted by entrance scores in order to mitigate any initial differences that might have been present (Huck, Cormier, & Bounds, 1974, pp. 132–135) and thereby to give a more accurate measure of student academic growth in the program. In addition, the design controlled for hours of attendance, the sex of the student, the course of study, and student age.

Findings

The 29 teachers in this study tended to favor a teacher-centered approach. Their mean score on PALS was 130.05. This is 0.8 of a standard deviation below the mean of 146 for the instrument and places the group at the 21 percentile ranking. Although the teacher's scores ranged from 111.5 to 155, only three teachers scored above the instrument's mean score of 146. Thus, the teaching style of this sample was not congruent with the adult education literature, and its distribution was not similar to that of larger groups that had been tested with PALS (Conti, 1983).

In order to compare a teacher's score to student achievement, PALS scores were categorized by one-half of a standard deviation. Analysis of covariance was used to compare the independent variable of teaching style as measured on PALS to the dependent variable of student achievement. Teaching style contributed significantly to student achievement (F = 5.67, df = 4/806, p < .001). The greatest gain was among the group of students whose teachers scored between 1.5 and 2.0 standard deviations below the mean on PALS. The next highest gain was among students who had the teachers with the highest PALS scores in the study. The order of these results changed, however, when hours of attendance were also controlled. The analysis indicated a significant difference (F = 4.93, df = 4/805, p = .001) in the effect of teaching style upon student academic achievement when both student entrance level and amount of student attendance were introduced as covariances. In this situation, the students who had the teachers with the highest PALS scores experienced the greatest academic gains. The group with the teachers scoring lowest on PALS had the second ranking scores. The other three groups were also below the mean for PALS, but their ranking did not indicate a discernible pattern.

The effects of an interaction between PALS score and the variables of the sex of the student, student age, and course of study were examined. While the results of the analysis of covariance disclosed a significant difference due to teaching style ($F = 5.69$, $df = 4/797$, $p < .001$), there was no difference due to the sex of the student ($F = 2.46$, $df = 1/797$, $p = .12$) nor was there a significant interaction between teaching style and student gender ($F = .39$, $df = 4/797$, $p = .82$). Likewise, student age did not cause a difference ($F = 1.12$, $df = 10/756$, $p = .34$), and no interaction was indicated between teaching style and the age of the students ($F = .62$, $df = 40/756$, $p = .84$). Thus, no statistical relationships were found between the student attributes of sex and age that would influence student academic growth.

However, a significant interaction was found between teaching style and the nature of the course ($F = 3.62$, $df = 8/796$, $p < .001$). This is not a surprising finding for a program that contains both GED preparatory courses and ESL classes. Since ESL classes often contain those who are illiterate in both their native language and English and those who are experiencing cultural adjustments, academic growth in the ESL program may occur at a slower rate. Because of the great disparity between the GED and ESL classes, the relationship between teacher's style and student achievement was explored separately for each course of study. In each case analysis of covariance was used and the controlling variables of hours of attendance, sex of student, and student age were examined.

A significant difference was found within the GED classes. Teaching style had a significant impact on student achievement in the GED setting ($F = 16.94$, $df = 4/239$, $p < .001$). Contrary to the adult education literature, students in the most teacher-centered group overwhelming achieved the greatest gains. The general pattern was for student achievement to decrease as PALS scores increased with the classes conducted by the two groups of teachers most supportive of the literature showing the least gain. This same pattern persisted when attendance was controlled. Student age and sex were not significantly related to teaching style and academic gain.

A different pattern emerged from the examination of the basic level and ESL settings. Large but nonsignificant differences in student achievement as related to teaching style were detected in both the basic level ($F = 1.95$, $df = 3/96$, $p = .13$) and the ESL ($F = 2.06$, $df = 4/459$, $p = .09$) setting. However, significant differences in academic achievement associated with teaching style in the basic level ($F = 2.64$, $df = 3/95$, $p = .05$) and ESL ($F = 3.54$, $df = 4/458$, $p = .007$) setting emerged when the covariants of entrance level and hours of attendance were controlled. Unlike the results in the GED setting, students working with the collaborative teachers tended to achieve more than those experiencing a very teacher-centered mode. The amount of gain was most pronounced in the ESL setting. Although the students whose teachers most strongly supported the collaborative mode had high, positive gains in both settings, the distribution of scores among the other groups of scores on PALS did not demonstrate a pattern. As in all other checks in this study, the characteristics of sex of student and student age were not related to teaching style and academic gain.

Discussion

The major finding of this study is that a relationship exists between the teaching style used in the adult education setting and student achievement. Although the adult education literature suggests that the collaborative mode is generally the most effective, this study indicates that GED students learned more in a teacher-centered environment. This may be because GED students tend to be goal oriented and primarily to focus on the short-term task of passing the GED examination. Their task is clear, and they desire to obtain the GED certificate as quickly as possible. As a result correctly addressing their needs may involve creating a structured learning environment in which the externally derived objectives for passing the standardized GED test are clearly delinated and in which human resources are are available to help the student stay on task.

A different approach appears to be more appropriate in the basic level and ESL setting. Here the goal is the improvement of skills related to reading, mathematics, and English proficiency. Because of the beginning deficiencies of the entry-level students, there is the realization that this is a long term process. In addition, these skills are related to the person's self-concept. They influence both the way people see themselves and the way they perceive that others see them. Risk taking for personal exploration requires a supportive environment. The teacher is crucial to this process; student involvement in this process is dependent upon acceptance by the teacher (Fellenz, Conti, & Brekelbaum, 1981). Thus, while developing academic skills, these students are also experimenting with interpersonal skills. The time required for building an open, supportive, and warm relationship between student and teacher may also help explain why academic achievement is a function of hours of attendance for teachers with different styles.

This study is limited by the lack of a full range of possible styles among the participating teachers. Nevertheless, it does address McKeachie's (1983) call for studies to begin to focus upon the unique parts of a field instead of the field as a whole and to begin to apply the general knowledge base of the field to specific situations. By examining the style of the teacher, this study is an initial step in providing situational specificity to the general adult education literature base in relationship to its impact on student outcomes.

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Social and Economic Attitudes in the Education of Industrial Workers in Richmond, Virginia, 1884 to 1904

by

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Recent work on the educational history of the South has included scholarly treatment of industrial education for blacks, but little has been done regarding similar education for whites, particularly white adults. Thus, this paper addresses the question "What were the social and economic attitudes affecting the industrial education of white adults in Richmond, Virginia, from 1884 to 1904?" In addition, there has been a continuing debate in the more general field of American educational history between the "consensus" and "conflict" theories of historical interpretation. Consensus theory is a "liberal" interpretation that the growth of American education was a result of social consensus to provide education to the population. In opposition is the "revisionist" view that educational development was one of class conflict or control of the lower classes in the interest of social and economic elites. While the debate has been mostly confined to the history of the public schools, it should apply to the history of adult education as well. This paper is a tentative exploration of a recent suggestion that each of the theories is reductionist, for each holds to a single aspect as the essence of a complex process.

In Richmond, Virginia, the industrial education of white adults was focused on the Virginia Mechanics' Institute. The Institute was founded in 1854, but ceased to exist during the Civil War. Little was done to resurrect the Institute until 1884, and several factors were at work: First, an economic recovery was underway in Richmond, and iron foundries, railroads, tobacco manufacturing, and other industries were all booming. Organized labor was active, population grew, and a positive attitude toward the future developed. Coupled with this was the "New South" ideology, an adoption of Northern industrial capitalism on the one hand, and a reaffirmation of Southern pride on the other hand. There was also the reassertion of native white political power, but where rural interests had dominated before the Civil War, now it was urban and industrial interests. These were the circumstances in which the Virginia Mechanics' Institute was revived in 1884.

One of the leaders in the refounding of the Virginia Mechanics' Institute was Lyon Gardiner Tyler. In the fall of 1884, Tyler and others organized a "Night School of Technology" for "all interested young men" who could" not afford to pay for an education." On October 3, the Night School opened with free courses in mathematics, bookkeeping, architectural drawing, and mechanical drawing. By December, 1884, the enrollment stood at 117 students.

During this time, Tyler and others explored ways to reestablish the defunct Institute, and by early 1885, they had organized and adopted a constitution and by-laws, elected officers and a board of managers, and secured funds from the Richmond city council. The objectives of the refounded Virginia Mechanics'

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Institute were "the promotion and encouragement of manufactures, the Mechanic and Useful Arts - and the mental and social improvement of the industrial classes." Among the founders were lawyers, architects, a physician, an artist, and persons from businesses and industries. A few were industrialists of national significance, but most were local figures. Institute officers were successful area mechanics. Thus, the refounded Institute was firmly in the hands of important mechanics and industrialists.

At the Institute, the advantages of an industrial education were connected with regional pride and North-South competition. One board member portrayed the advantage as "never so great in the South as it is today. But a few years ago the South contributed thousands annually to the coffers of the North.... But now the trade is changing..., and the better education of the working classes [is] working a mighty change...." Others looked to a wider competition. One guest speaker at the Institute in 1891, urged that not only must Richmond and the South compete with other American industries, but they must compete with European industries as well, and what was needed was "educated labor." The depression of 1893 chilled some of the more flamboyant "New South" boosterism, and the drive for progress became a more subdued theme at the Institute.

Socio-economic class was an important consideration of the times, and a central question is how much class affected the work of the Institute. Two founders with aristocratic roots were Lyon G. Tyler and Thomas Nelson Page. Both came from prominent Virginia families. Their activities reflected old aristocratic traditions of public service. Probably both had motives of service and gain. What is obvious is that they exhibited pride in their service and sought recognition for it. Tyler was later made an honorary life member of the Institute and was still boosting it shortly before his death in 1934.

A different socio-economic perspective is gained from Institute leadership that represented the middle class. George Ainslie, carriage maker and first president of the revived Institute, typically argued from both the practical and idealistic sides. He wanted to bring down the "latest results of scientific research and apply them to practical use," while at the same time "to lift our mechanics above the plane of unthinking muscle work." Night School principal A.M.F. Billingslea gave a philosophical view of the work of the Institute: "No philosophy of labor is true that does not recognize the fact that every human being...has...the right to be unfolded, enriched, and enveloped as a man." Thus, there was both a practical concern for economic advantage and a humanitarian concern for white industrial workers.

Another socio-economic perspective was offered by the students. Of all the programs sponsored by the Institute, the most popular with students was the Night School of Technology. From its inception in 1884, its growth was hampered by lack of adequate facilities and funding. It finished its first full term in 1885 with 134 students and by the end of the 1891-92 term had 374 students. The depression of 1893 hurt enrollments, which fell to a low of 239 students in the 1896-97 term, but climbed back to a high of 376 by the 1902-03 term as economic growth returned. The students who attended the Night School ranged from 12 to 35 years of age, with an average age of 20, and, with ambitions for occupational advance and upward mobility.

The fact that students had to work long hours and attend classes at night meant that there were attendance problems. The average rate of attendance during the period for which figures are available was only 73%, a factor that no doubt adversely affected achievement. Many of the students earned very low wages, one estimate in 1890 being as little as $10 per month for some of the younger students. In 1901, it was observed of Institute students that 95 percent of them were "bread winners, supporting and assisting to support families."

During much of the period, the Night School was unable to handle student demand. In 1892, for example, 77 applicants were turned away for lack of funds and space. This was still true for the most popular courses even after the 1893 depression. When economic recovery came, the necessity of turning away applicants increased, particularly in 1899, 1900, 1901. After the Institute finally built new quarters in 1902, this became less of a problem.

Many of the students lived on the economic edge, and for them the Institute stood as the means of advancement. Their use of the Night School shows the force of that hope, and the curriculum shows some of the directions it took. By 1894, the curriculum included arithmetic, algebra, plane geometry, solid geometry, descriptive geometry, bookkeeping, architectural drawing, mechanical drawing, chemistry, physics, applied mechanics, freehand drawing, modeling, and electricity. By 1904, calculus, natural philosophy, and English had been added. Many students came with poor background preparation, and multiple sections were needed for the different levels of preparation.

By the late 1880's, the dominant power in Virginia politics was the Virginia Democratic Party, but it favored special interests and ignored the lower classes, both black and white. While there was no direct connection between Institute policies and the Democractic Party, there was a strong connection between the interests of the Party and those of urban business, and Board membership certainly reflected the latter. Still, students were drawn from among the laboring class, and they found the Institute amenable to their needs. By the same token in the mid-1880's when for a short time organized labor dominated city government, city funding to the Institute went from $1,000 in 1885, to $3,300 in 1886, then to $4,000 in 1887. In the early 1890's, the short-lived Labor News editorially backed the Institute, calling it "the poor man's college" and appealing for state funding comparable to the university and other state colleges. The labor movement in Richmond broke apart over the racial issue, however, and was never able to exercise much influence at the state level.

If the Institute's leadership had any significant influence with dominant state political authority, it was singularly ineffective in gaining state funding. Requests were made for state funds in 1886, 1887, and 1889, and all were denied. The leadership even failed to get a state charter until 1902, and this was not due to failure to seek it. A major reason for Institute requests for state funds was the lack of adequate facilities. When the Institute finally secured a new building, it did so solely through private contributions, a great many of which were in the $1.00 to $25.00 amount, and it moved to the new building in 1902 with an indebtedness of $10,000.

By 1904, the Virginia Mechanics' Institute had established itself as a needed part of the community, and it continued to grow over the next several decades. In 1943, it was finally merged with the Richmond Public Schools, where it continued to function as an adult industrial education unit. Today it exists as the Richmond Technical Center.

Conclusions

The claim that neither conflict nor consensus is sufficient to explain the complex social and economic attitudes involved in adult industrial education needs qualifying. The evidence indicates a significant degree of control exercised over the white laboring classes in the interests of economic elites. The Institute was controlled by these elites, and it was projected to workers as an avenue of mobility. The attitudes of the Institutes' leadership also reflected concern for workers, and this softens the force of a conflict theory of explanation. Furthermore, if Institute leaders reflected elite state political interests, this did not result in their securing any state funding.

The programs of the Institute, particularly the Night School, were primarily focused on technical industrial concerns, and there is no evidence that they were used to help students develop critical views of industrialism or major issues that ran contrary to elite interests. However, Institute leadership wanted a general improvement in social and economic conditions and they worked to make the Institute a part of that improvement. To conclude otherwise is to accept leadership expressions and actions for economic gains, but to reject their expressions and actions for improving the conditions of white industrial workers, a conclusion that is arbitrary without more compelling evidence.

There is no evidence that those in control of the Institute sought to covertly censor or indoctrinate students in a partisan political way, although students were certainly exposed to propaganda on industrialism, the "New South" ideology, and the virtues of technical and scientific education for industrial development and personal advancement. These, in any event, were major topics of public discussion during the era and were likely topics for guest speakers and Institute sponsored events. Thus, limitations on the curriculum and programs of the Institute were not, as far as the evidence indicates, of a conspiratorial nature to control so much as they were limitations imposed by the historical period. In other words, the prime actors - leaders and students - were creatures, perhaps even captives, of their own history.

By the same token, there was also a significant degree of worker consensus. There was certainly an acceptance of the Institute by many workers as witnessed by the student demand from people who had to sacrifice leisure time and face economic hardship to attend. The evidence indicates that students saw attendance to their advantage and as a way out of their present circumstances. There was no evidence uncovered that indicated any degree of student disagreement with the Institutes' objectives, or political disaffection with its goals. Furthermore, organized labor approved the Institute and its programs. In short, students did not oppose in any significant way either the practical or the idealistic views of the leadership. The lack of student opposition could mean at least two things: they either shared those views, or they lacked the sophistication and experience to comprehend the nature of the elite control. The latter softens the force of the consensus thesis.

On balance, then, neither conflict nor consensus is an adequate explanation. However, this conclusion is far from complete because:

1. There was no mention of black people in relation to adult industrial education when there were, in fact, black mechanics and numerous black industrial workers. A central issue that needs to be researched is the nature of conflict and consensus between black and white

industrial workers and how this influenced the education of all industrial workers. The education of the one cannot be fully understood without the other.

2. Members of the lower classes did not leave historical records that are as easily accessible as the more educated and vocal upper classes. More research is needed on the social and economic attitudes of industrial workers, including those who did not attend the Institute, to provide a more exacting picture of worker attitudes and how this figured in the provisions for adult industrial education.

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A Longitudinal Ethnographic Study of Selected Developmentally Disabled Adults: Application to Planning Effective Educational Programs

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Attitudes toward the group of developmentally disabled that have some degree of retardation and the potential contribution to society by members of this group have changed dramatically since the turn of the century. Early beliefs considered the mentally retarded to be a "menace" to society and therefore undeserving of help. These negative views gradually declined and the eugenics scare abated as society reognized that many individuals labeled as retarded and even institutionalized during their youth and adolescence were discharged as adults and made satisfactory adjustments to independent living, even to becoming absolutely self supporting (Charles, 1953).

However the problems of transition from the essentially passive, dependent, retarded child to an independent retarded adult are many. The young person, disabled or not needs to develop independence from the nuclear family, identify a sexual identity, and seek to prepare for economic and vocational roles. For the retarded these tasks are particularly difficult for several reasons: (1) Disability effects an entire family and often family members use disability as an opportunity to prolong infancy and discourage achievable independent functioning (McDaniel, 1969), and family members may impose their plans and opinions on the disabled family member because they feel they know best (Knot, 1979). (2) The retarded are often prisoners in their own homes since they lack the necessary skills for becoming an active part of the young society (Haraguchi, 1981). In addition, parents often have a difficult time viewing their retarded family member as sexual and attractive (Mayer, 1976), and therefore tend to keep needed information from their retarded family member or seek out programs in which sexual opportunities are severely limited (Lewandowski & Cruickshank, 1980). (3) Parents are often skeptical about the ability of their retarded family member to hold a job and thus do not advocate prevocational programs resulting in significant delays in vocational development (Goldberg, 1981). (4) Formal education for the educable retarded often ends in late adolescence as these persons do not generally continue education beyond high school. Since, for the retarded, mental age is at a lower level than chronological age, their education is terminated at a time when they would be most receptive to learning (Heron & Myers, 1983). A compounding factor is the very poor level of incidental learning in the retarded, and their imprecise perceptions (Smith, 1968). Since this prevents the retarded from learning by themselves through casual participation and observation, and since the training they had at the secondary level is often very inadequate for preparing them for independent living (Bellamy & Wilcox, 1982), the need for learning as adults is prevalent among the retarded in our population.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to identify competencies necessary and/or desirable for the educable mentally retarded to acquire if they are to make a satisfactory adjustment to living independently, and to analyze the implications of this for planning programs for retarded adults in need of such programs.

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Method and Procedures

In the Fall of 1965 one component of a study relating to the educational needs of the educable mentally retarded was a compilation of case studies for the five members of a senior high school work study home economics course for educable retarded female students.

In addition to attending the prescribed classes, the students were placed in entry-level jobs out in the community or within the high school - as in the hot lunch program, janitorial services, etc.

The case studies consisted of comprehensive demographic information, school records, including I.Q. test results, information based on interviews with counselors, teachers, administrators, employers, and the individual's parents and/or close relatives.

Through the years periodic checks were made on the progress of the five individuals in their attempt to adjust to community living followed by a comprehensive follow-up study in 1983. Interviews were conducted with all of the five subjects and with their close relatives or foster parents.

In addition to the longitudinal study of the five original subjects, ten retarded persons who had been placed in independent living situations by the social service personnel were also included in the study. Most of these individuals had been living independently from one to several years and were either employed in the community or spent each day in a developmental center. Each of the ten additional subjects were visited in their current living quarters. The quarters were observed and comprehensive interviews were conducted with each individual.

The inteviews with all subjects and with family members were essentially friendly conversations but with the three important ethnographic elements: explicit purpose, ethnographic explanations, and ethnographic questions (Spradley, 1979).

Findings and Discussion

Case Studies. A very brief summary of each of the case studies and a composite case study of the ten individuals who had participated or who were actively participating in a developmental center for mentally disabled individuals and who were living independently follow.

Betty White - Birthdate: 1950. I.Q.: 51. Physical condition: Growth, weight gain, hearing and eyesight normal. Had difficulty with large and small muscle activities. Home background: At age of 12 she was placed in a foster home. Mother had died and father was retarded and the parental home was undesirable. The foster home proved to be unsatisfactory and several trial placements were necessary before a suitable foster home was found. Work experience: She was placed in a sheltered work situation - the hot lunch program in the high school. Personal characteristics and future goals in the work study program: She had a very short attention span and was difficult to supervise since she required very explicit directions and almost constant supervision. She was outgoing but could not take criticism. She was very interested in finding a boyfriend. Adjustment to independent living - current status: She is currently married and has been for five years. Her husband is from a foreign country and believes that men should make all the major decisions, and Betty is very amenable to this situation. She does the cleaning with his assistance and prodding. They eat many of their meals in fast food restaurants and purchase the ready prepared canned or frozen foods.

Martha Black - Birthdate: 1947. I.Q.: 72. Physical and emotional condition: Growth, weight and coordination seemed to be normal. Mother explained that she had brain injury at birth. A sister with normal intelligence was in the same class and Martha felt inferior by comparison. Home background: Middle to upper class, however, when Martha was 1½ her father died and until Martha was 12, when her mother remarried, they were quite "poor." The marriage improved the financial situation but created relationship problems. Work experience: She worked in several entry-level positions and later obtained a position as a housekeeper for a city owned institution where she has been employed for 17 years. Personal characteristics and future goals in the work study program: When in this program she was interested in only the areas of study that might lead to employment. Adjustment to independent living - current status: She lives with her mother but is quite independent in that she contributes to the food and upkeep budget, and assists with the cleaning. Her mother "cooks." She has a boyfriend but is not anxious for the responsibilities of marriage. She drives a car.

Sally Green - Birthdate: 1946. I.Q. - 72. Physical condition: Growth, weight gain, coordination were normal, excellent health record, enjoyed sports, sang well. Home background: Middle to upper middle class. Adoptive mother was a university graduate. Parents had their own business. An adopted son was above average scholastically and as a result parents expected more from Sally than she was capable of attaining. Work experience: Had several entry-level positions that did not prove to be successful. She either did not like the work or wasted too much time. Personal characteristics and future goals in the work study program: Demonstrated insecurity, hesitant about trying the unfamiliar. Was very friendly and interested in dating. Adjustment to independent living - current status: Married to a man 16 years older and has a daughter 3 years old. When the daughter was about a year old Sally had a complete mental/emotional breakdown and was institutionalized for several months. The foster mother that cared for the daughter lives near and "helps out" when needed. She is often lonely and has joined a religious group which seems to be beneficial.

Kristin Brown - Birthdate: 1950. I.Q.: 73. Physical and emotional condition: Growth and weight gain were normal. Very susceptible to infections and had limited energy. Was withdrawn and very sensitive to criticism as a child and was evaluated for possible mental illness at age 15. Home background: Lower middle class. Father employed in blue collar jobs and mother operated a nursery in the home. Kristin often assisted with care of the children and enjoyed this. Family includes an older brother and sister and a younger brother, all normal. Work experience: She was not emotionally mature enough to adjust to unsheltered employment while in the work study program. Personal characteristics and future goals in the work study program: She was shy, sensitive, depressed and concerned about her future. Very dependent on her parnets and particularly admired her father who let her do as she wished - consequently she stayed at home much of the time and watched television. Adjustment to independent living - current status: She was employed by an elderly man as a housekeeper. He helped her learn basic tasks related to home maintenance, food preparation, etc. and personal characteristics necessary for adjustment to unsheltered employment. He helped her find employment and she has been satisfactorily employed for over ten years. The man died and she moved into an apartment which she maintains.

Janice North - Birthdate: 1947. I.Q.: 73. Physical and emotional condition: Excellent health, placed in special school for retarded at age 7, frequent reevaluations but remained in special school, quite normal socially and emotionally. Home background: Lower middle class. Two older brothers were also placed in the special school. One sister was "normal." Close knit family. Work experience: At age 19 worked as a motel maid and was successful. Later placed in a local factory and operated a power sewing machine. All evaluations were excellent. Personal characteristics and future goals when in the work study program: Quite shy, hard worker, cooperative. Good coordination. Had a steady boyfriend and was planning marriage. Adjustment to independent living - current status: Married and living with husband. Has five children, 4 girls, ages 12, 10, 9, and 6 and one boy, age 5. Husband has retired from 20 years in the navy and is employed as a garage mechanic. They now live in a house trailer on her parents' farm. She does her own housework. She does not like to sew and rarely does any. Mother now does the mending. She does not enjoy "cooking" and buys ready prepared, canned or frozen foods when possible. She enjoys crafts and makes ceramic articles to sell at flea markets. She does not drive a car.

Composite insights from the case studies of the additional subjects. The majority were low educable. Ages: 20 to 54. Average I.Q.: Low 70s. Physical condition: Seemed to be physically healthy and had a positive attitude toward life. In addition to being mildly retarded most had some slight physical disability. Home background: Their homes all ranged from low middle class to upper middle class and they had normal parents. If they had brothers and sisters these were normal. In all cases their parents or other significant people in their lives lived quite near, either in the city or within 25 miles. A social worker made periodic checks on their progress and this helped give them a sense of security. Work experience: The majority spent each day in a developmental center. Personal characteristics: They were generally hesitant about making new friends - do not trust people they do not know unless introduced and assured that the new person is acceptable. If taught certain routines, they adhere to the routine and try to avoid distractions - distractions make them forget. Food preparation and apartment maintenance and laundry: Food - They either buy their own groceries or a friend with a car or their parents help them with grocery shopping. They prefer to use ready prepared foods as frozen sandwiches, T.V. dinners, canned soups. Their meals are comparatively simple. Most were aware of the basic four and even proud that they knew about the basic four - however, there was very little evidence that they applied their knowledge to the selection of their foods. Apartment maintenance - All were successful in keeping their apartments organized, neat and fairly clean. They seem to enjoy these tasks and follow a fairly close schedule. If and when they must purchase furniture or bedding, etc. they seek assistance from friends or relatives. All live alone.

Implications

All five of the subjects in the case studies had made acceptable adjustments to living independently and were not receiving any kind of government aid. Of the ten additional subjects two were employed in an unsheltered type job (as janitors for a state institution) and the remaining eight participated in a developmental program. These eight individuals were receiving government assistance.

The training for independent living that was received by the give persons included in the longitudinal case studies consisted of special general education classes in the high school for the retarded and the home economics work study class. In the work study class the following content areas were included: grooming and clothing selection (2 weeks); textiles, types of weaves and properties of fabrics, care of fabrics, purchasing fabrics, use of a sewing machine (2 weeks); clothing construction (8 weeks); relationships (2 weeks); health (2 weeks); food preparation, meal planning and serving, safety, nutrition (15 weeks); food for children and those who are ill (2 weeks). Throughout the year the students were reminded to practice grooming habits and were involved in daily maintenance of the department.

In the developmental center emphasis was on five areas and each individual participated in each area every week. These included: academics, living skills (social skills and personal hygiene), leisure skills, homemaking skills and workship (contract work for factories, etc. and the inhabitants were paid).

On the basis of observations and interviews the following was evident: (1) All were acceptably groomed and wore appropriate clothing, (2) Their apartments or homes were orderly and clean, and they all seemed to take pride in their homes and enjoyed keeping them "picked up." (3) On the basis of food stored in their refrigerators and cupboards and from personal accounts, their food preparation was generally limited to warming canned or frozen prepackaged foods. They frequently purchased prepared foods at fast food establishments or delis and took it home to eat. There was no evidence that they applied knowledge of the basic four or had any other awareness of the relationship of nutritional principles to health. They did, however, tend to select foods for the three meals that are generally associated with the meals. Nutrition is one of the areas in which they seemed to need assistance, and possibly the most practical approach and one they might comprehend and practice is emphasis on meal patterns. It would be most expedient to work with each individual to obtain a list of preferred foods and then help incorporate these in a balanced diet - prepare a week of menus and emphasize adhering to the plan. Those who had a microwave oven and had learned to use it to warm foods or cook frozen raw foods found it very convenient. (4) While considerable time and effort was spent in teaching clothing construction and mending with the use of a sewing machine, none of the individuals in this study used any of this knowledge in their daily living. Several had been given sewing machines and had eventually sold them or given them away as they never used them - even the individuals who had gained a rather high level of competence. It would seem advisable in their training to eliminate any kind of sewing that involved use of a sewing machine. A couple did use a needle and thread to sew on buttons or repair a torn seam or hem, however most had family members who helped. (5) Most enjoyed crafts of various kinds such as latch hook, ceramics, painting, macrame. These seem to have significant carry over and give them pleasure and a feeling of accomplishment. (6) They had learned how to relate to employers and friends to a certain extent. They need a support system for finding employment and adjusting to employment. This could be family members, a mentor or government agency personnel. (7) They need to learn to consult famly members or reliable family friends or government agency personnel when making major personal or economic decisions. (8) They need complete and practical sex education, and need to be able to recognize illness and when to seek medical attention. (9) As the majority do not drive, they need to live where it is possible to use public transportation. If someone would teach them, and if they could take an oral drivers test, it is probable that the majority of the mildly retarded could obtain a driver's license (Zider and Golde, 1981).

With the assistance of concerned individuals, the majority of the mildly/educable retarded can and do make satisfactory adjustments to independent living. There are several general observations worth noting: The telephone and the television and frequently a stereo player are very important sources of pleasure and recreation. The absence of any reading material as magazines and books is almost universal. Occasionally an individual will read parts of a local paper and possibly an easy to read novel but this is the exception. They respond to oral language and not printed material, therefore the oral approach in teaching and working with them is much more productive.

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Achieving Career Continuity Through Continuing Education--(Experiences of a Thousand Canadian Women in a Non-traditional Field)

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Introduction

There are more than a hundred thousand professional engineers in Canada and almost all of them are men. Canada is among the countries that have the smallest percentage of women in this profession--just over one per cent. Even so, one per cent is large in comparison with the one-tenth of one per cent that persisted for decades, as it indicates a tenfold increase. The influx is just beginning! Women students currently make up about nine per cent of the enrollment in undergraduate engineering courses so the proportion of women engineers can be expected to rise rapidly in the next few years.[1]

The designation "professional engineer" is protected by law in Canada and may only be used by persons licensed to do so. After completing secondary school, the young person must successfully complete four years of engineering studies in an approved university and then obtain at least two years of related industrial experience before being recognized as a professional engineer entitled to write "P.Eng." after his or her name.[2] Increasing numbers of female aspirants to the profession are currently in the secondary schools and universities and, very soon, will be in the professional ranks.[3]

How can one account for the fact that engineering has been an almost exclusively masculine profession? There has never been any deliberate attempt to keep women out. Canada has never had any legal barrier to women becoming engineers. For over half a century there have been some women students in engineering programmes.[4] Universities have accepted students on the same admission criteria, regardless of sex, and the licensing bodies have demanded from women applicants only the same industrial experience as was demanded of men. No one was keeping the women out of the profession but, until recently, very few sought entrance. In 1981, the Science Council of Canada held an invitational workshop in Ottawa to investigate the causes of and possible remedies for the low numbers of

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women in the scientific and technological professions. Physicists, engineers, educators, psychologists and researchers participated. We concluded that only social customs and traditional beliefs about what was an appropriate occupation for a woman had restricted so drastically the number of Canadian women scientists and engineers.[5] It was easy to debunk the myth that there is something inherent in the female brain which prevents women from understanding scientific principles and reasoning mathematically. Reference was made to the much higher participation rates of women in the engineering profession in other countries and it was difficult to believe that only *Canadian* women suffer from this mental affliction.[6] Further evidence that social rather than biological factors affect the career aspirations of young women arises from comparisons of current sex ratios among engineering students with those of a generation ago. Obviously, the bodies and brains of today's young women are not different from those of their mothers at the same age.

Twelve years ago, a graduate student in sociology conducted a survey of Canada's women engineers. Only about a hundred research subjects could be found, the majority being women who had immigrated to Canada after having graduated in European countries where the profession was not considered to be so very unconventional for a woman. Canadian-educated women engineers were found to be a minority within the thin ranks of women practising engineering in Canada.[7]

But times are changing--and they are changing very rapidly! How can one account for the dramatic increase in female enrollment in Canadian engineering faculties in the last few years? There is no single cause. The Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada drew attention to the consequences of the high concentration of working women in low status, poorly paid occupations. International Women's Year with its "Why not?" campaign sought to widen the career horizons of women everywhere. However, in the opinion of the present researcher, the major cause of increasing enrollment of women engineering students is the positive encouragement they are now receiving. Women have always been *permitted* to study engineering, but it is only comparatively recently that they have been *actively encouraged* to do so. Encouraged by whom? By diverse groups and agencies, in both the public and the private sectors of society. Faculties of Engineering have rewritten their calendars to avoid sexist language. Last spring, the National Film Board of Canada produced a film entitled I Want to Be an Engineer. Intended for showing to senior high school students, their counsellors and parents, this film portrays engineering as an interesting and rewarding career for either sex. Technical magazines have included articles about the need for more women in engineering. Associations of professional engineers and private companies have made public statements encouraging women to prepare for careers in the engineering field.

But the traditional sources of *dis*couragement have not automatically disappeared. There is still a widespread but erroneous belief that engineers do work that is physically demanding or takes place under unpleasant working conditions. In fact, professional engineering is primarily an intellectual activity. Most engineers work in modern offices and make only occasional visits to construction sites or production lines. Engineers calculate, design and supervise; they do not carry bricks or operate cranes. Nevertheless, the popular stereotype of the engineer as a coarse individual doing rough work may discourage young women whose aptitudes lie in the mathematical and scientific fields from choosing engineering as a career. An even stronger source of subtle dissuasion arises from the notion that engineering is a very demanding discipline in which only a woman who is willing to forgo marriage and family life could possibly succeed.

A useful way of counteracting such common but mistaken perceptions of the engineering profession would be to publicize the professional and personal lives of women engineers. But virtually no information was available. Therefore, in the autumn of 1981, the decision was made to carry out a national survey of women engineers. Its purposes were to collect demographic information about this small, but growing, segment of the profession, and to find out from the women themselves what problems, if any, are associated with being a woman in a predominantly masculine profession.

Methodology

The research population was defined as women licensed to practise the profession of engineering in any Canadian province. The design called for data to be collected from all members of the population, not just from a sample. The size of the population was not known in advance as several of the licensing bodies do not list the sex of professional engineers.

By far the most time-consuming aspect of the project was getting the names and current addresses of the research subjects. Graduate students in the Department of Adult Education at O.I.S.E. assisted in this task. Several innovative techniques were employed. Nominal rolls of engineering associations and lists of delegates attending engineering conferences were searched for given names that usually belong to females. University alumni lists, although often incomplete and with out-of-date addresses were examined. Announcements about the survey were made at engineering meetings and notices were placed in technical magazines inviting women engineers to contact the researcher. A newspaper article about the project unearthed a number of research subjects. Women engineers themselves were often able to identify other members of the research population. Radio announcements led some women engineers to telephone the researcher. Geographical mobility and the custom of women changing their names upon marriage made the identification of research subjects difficult. The search continued for over a year until no new names were being found.

The data-collecting instrument was a five-page, foolscap-length questionnaire consisting of a few demographic items in multiple-choice format and many open-ended questions. The latter sought information about the women's experiences in the engineering profession, the means whereby they integrated such an unconventional career with other aspects of their lives, their perceptions of sources of encouragement and/or discrimination, and the advice they would offer to young women entering the profession. Questions about education pertained to both undergraduate preparation and continuing education, whether formal or informal, and whether for academic credit or for some other purpose.

The covering letter explained that the researcher was herself one of the research subjects and promised to present the findings of the study at a national convention of women engineers that was to be held in Montreal in 1983. Assurance was given that no individual would be identified and that all findings would be presented in statistical or other anonymous form. Any respondent not able to attend the convention was told how to get a copy of the research report. A stamped, addressed envelope accompanied the research instrument. To ensure that the respondent was indeed a member of the defined population, she was asked to state the university where she had studied engineering and her year of graduation. She was also asked to name the provincial association licensing her and to give the year in which she was first registered as an engineer.

Findings

The response to this mailed questionnaire survey was almost overwhelming. Of the 1037 questionnaires that were mailed out, 903 were completed and returned by women engineers. Even if one assumes that every person to whom a questionnaire was sent was in fact a woman engineer, the response rate is an astounding 87 per cent!

Not only did the respondents answer the questions that were posed, but many wrote on the backs of the pages or included extra sheets to expand their answers with personal anecdotes. O.I.S.E. Adult Education students participated in the content analysis of the responses.

Demographic findings are included in the formal report[8] and only a few are mentioned here. The geographical distribution of women engineers is similar to that of men engineers. Women engineers are not concentrated in any one branch of the profession. Canadian-educated women engineers are twice as numerous as women who earned their engineering qualifications before immigrating to Canada. The recency of the influx of women into the profession is illustrated by the statistic that their median age is only 31 years. The typical woman engineer is married as only one in eight is still single. The most common age for marriage was 24 years. Two-thirds of the married women engineers are married to engineers. Women engineers have equalitarian marriages. They speak highly of their husbands, saying they are supportive of the wife's career and co-operative in sharing family responsibilities. There is a high level of continuity of employment among women engineers. Those who had not been in full-time employment continuously reported only brief absences, the most common reason being for childbirth and infant care. Almost half of the women surveyed were mothers.

A salient finding of the study of women engineers was the importance they place on continuing education. Formal education beyond the bachelor's level is not required for continued practice and additional academic qualifications do not automatically increase one's salary or likelihood of promotion. Nevertheless, almost half the women had completed one or more additional degrees or were currently enrolled in some part-time studies. Many explained that further education demonstrates career orientation to employers and colleagues. Next to a post-graduate degree in some branch of engineering, the most popular programme was the M.B.A. Enrollment in administration courses is used by some women engineers to signal their superiors that they are interested in moving up the corporate ladder.

No technical or business administration courses are intended specifically for women engineers but all courses given by universities, engineering associations and large companies are open to students of both sexes. However, women reported that they were sometimes overlooked in company-sponsored programmes as it was assumed, erroneously, that they were only working temporarily. They advised younger women to take every opportunity to continue their formal and informal education.

The researcher's previous studies had failed to show any relationship between participation in continuing education and parenthood.[9] However, the research subjects had either been men or women in a traditionally feminine occupation. A striking finding of the study of women engineers was the extent to which mothers used continuing education as a means of bridging gaps in employment caused by family responsibilities. During their periods away from full-time employment, the engineers either completed a degree or certificate programme, or made highly individual arrangements to further their technical knowledge as a means of smoothing their re-entry into full-time employment.

Conclusion

As there is no reason to assume that either the high incidence of continuing education among Canada's women engineers or their use of it for career continuity is peculiar to either their nationality or the engineering profession,[10] further research should be undertaken on women engineers in other countries, and also on women in other predominantly masculine professions in Canada and elsewhere. There appears to be a relationship among continuing education, motherhood and career continuity, at least for the population surveyed in this research project.

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[1] Ellis, Dormer, "Co-education in Canadian Engineering Faculties", Proceedings of the Third Canadian Conference on Engineering Education, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, May 10-11, 1982, pp. 31-40.

[2] Each province has an association of professional engineers which serves as the licensing body. Admission requirements and regulations are very similar in all provinces.

[3] Hawley, Brendan. "Women and Engineering", Engineering Manpower News, Canadian Council of Professional Engineers, No. 34, May/June 1982. Pp. 4.

[4] The late Elsie Gregory MacGill, well-known for her work in aeronautical engineering, graduated from the University of Toronto in 1927.

[5] A copy of the proceedings (Who Turns the Wheel? ed. Janet Ferguson) may be obtained without charge from the Science Council of Canada, 100 Metcalfe Street, Ottawa, Canada.

[6] Ellis, Dormer, "In Canada, Must Engineers be Men?" Proceedings of the Third International Conference of Women Engineers and Scientists, Turin, Italy, September 1971.

[7] A copy of the unpublished M.A. thesis of Gloria Goodings (1971) may be obtained from the library of the University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, Canada.

[8] An abridged version of the research report (These Women are Engineers/Ces femmes sont des ingénieures, Dormer Ellis, P.Eng.) may be obtained without charge from the Canadian Council of Professional Engineers, 116 Albert Street, Suite 401, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1P-5G3.

[9] Ellis, Dormer. Seven Thousand Men. Toronto: The Ontario Public School Men Teachers' Federation, 1971. Pp. 67.

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INCIDENTAL LEARNING IN THE INTENTIONAL AND STRUCTURED LEARNING EXPERIENCES OF ADULT STUDENTS

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This study examined the phenomenon of incidental learning not intended as part of a course. Does an individual's age have any relation to the amount of incidental learning in a course, or do such factors as work experience or prior course work seem to have a bearing on incidental learning? In an effort to draw a more complete picture of the learner, the sex of the learner as well as reasons for taking the course and grade received should be taken into account as related to incidental learning. Motivation and achievement then can be examined with some measurable criteria. Finally, it was determined if the encouragement of the instructor or peers has an effect on incidental learning.

Incidental learning is a particularly individual response to the learning process. If a positive relationship between the success of the learning endeavor and incidental learning emerges from the research, criteria for evaluation of both learning and teaching may result. An understanding of the locus of incidental learning may yield information useful for planning activities that will make maximum use of the incidental component in learning. Finally, an analysis of the manifestations of incidental learning may yield insights into the process of learning and clues to the continuing learning of adults.

A phenomenon as ubiquitous as incidental learning could be an unwieldy subject for systematic inquiry, so the incidental learnings in this study were limited to those found in a formal learning setting in which the following criteria apply: 1)There is intention on the part of the learner to learn, and intention on the part of the instructor to provide instruction; 2)There is supervision of the learning process by the instructor; 3)There is two-way communication between the learner and the instructor; 4)The duration of the relationship between the learner and the instructor is pre-established and understood by both parties (Little, 1980).

In order to focus the inquiry, incidental learning can be divided into several categories, and specific research questions reflect the divisions: 1)Self-knowledge: What is the relationship between increased self-knowledge and a successful learning experience? 2)Additional skills: To what extent is the number of new skils acquired to complete a learning project related to the success of that learning endeavor? 3)Further study: Does further study prompted by a learning experience relate to the effectiveness of that experience relate to the effectiveness of that experience? 4)Application: Does initiative for additional activity based on material in a given learning experience relate to the success of the experience? Central to the inquiry was the development of an instrument to be used as an indicator of incidental learning and its relationship to a useful learning experience. It was hoped that study would show incidental learning to be a constant and valuable component of the successful learning experience.

Although incidental learning was the term preferred throughout the study, additional terms not only serve to clarify the concept, but occasionally were used to identify incidental learning. For the purpose of this study, the term incidental learning included skills, attitudes and information which the respondents did not intend to acquire, but did learn. Synonyms--unintentional, accidental, non-intentional, serendipitous learning, and *lagniappe* --appeared occasionally in the text for emphasis. Related terms--concomitant learning, deutero-learning, mathemagenic activity, and desultory memory--have been inclu-

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ded in order to show the limits to which the term incidental learning may be expanded.

The literature has yielded information about the extent and types of research on the subject. Writers considering the matter of learning acknowledge incidental learning as a component of many learning tasks. They suggest that unintentionally acquired skills, information, and attitudes may be nearly as important as intended outcomes. Research on incidental learning, however, has been largely concerned with the retention of incidentally learned material and the factors influencing such retention. They have found that instructional objectives, the ages of learners, repetition, relevance and curiosity all have some bearing on unintended retention of certain information. In those studies, the incidentally learned attitudes had to be controlled, limiting information about the range of incidentally learned attitudes, information and skills in a whole course. Research and observation of the social component in incidental learning suggested that this study examine the influence of instructors or peers on incidental learning in a course. Research reporting the various abilities of children and adults suggests that incidental learning varies with developmental stages, leading to an examination of the similarities and differences in experiencing incidental learning between traditional (18-22) college-age students and non-traditional students pursuing the same college course.

Research Methodology. Direct questioning of any group about their learning experiences will usually elicit anecdotes detailing incidental learning. In an attempt to isolate and identify such behavior, the researcher found it necessary to select a sample population with a common learning experience for which to prepare questions about the nature of that learning. While the literature includes several studies dealing with incidentally learned information in elements of a specific course, analysis of a total course combining the complex of information, skills, and attitudes on the part of the learner has not yet appeared. Individuals who had successfully completed a beginning course in accounting were selected for study. Accounting was chosen as the basis for the study because of the uniformity of objectives to be found in such a course. The research involved questioning students about the nature of their learning.

A survey instrument was developed using, among other elements, the generally agreed upon objectives of a beginning accounting course. A series of statements concerning what had or had not been learning was organized to correspond with categories of incidental learning: self-knowledge, additional skills, further study, and creative activity. The first group of items listed the general objectives of a beginning accounting class. Additional groupings of survey items formed the following categories: Necessary skills--those indispensable for accounting practice; Applications in everyday life--how one can use accounting in his/her life; Interests beyond accounting--areas for further study and application; Attitudes toward accounting as a field of study and as a profession. It was then possible to form questions which drew limits and asked for specific information. An additional grouping of questions dealt with a student's response to the course itself: 1)Whether the student met objectives, 2)Whether the course met expectations, and 3)Whether instructor or classmates influenced incidental learning. Students were also asked to list the grade they received in the course. Although a letter grade is an imperfect measure of achievement, it is at least a generally accepted standard, and provided evidence of the student's successful completion of the course.

Administration of the questionnaire took place during January and February of 1982. The total sample of 246 students enrolled in a variety of classes at the three colleges represented different ages, experience and motivation. The sample contained an even distribution of two age groups: traditional college-age students (22 and younger) and non-traditional students (23 and older). A chi-square method of analysis was selected in order to determine the significance of the relationships between the variables and the items on the questionnaire. Significance was set at the .05 level, and the ranges for the list of items found significant for each variable were: 0 - 3 little, if any; 4 - 14 some; 13 - 24 moderate; 25 - 50 considerable.

Variables were tested in items 1 - 50 of the questionnaire. The experience variable was evaluated by examining statistically significant differences in answers to questions dealing with having taken a previous course in accounting or having worked as an accountant or bookkeeper. The age variable divided respondents into the groups 17-22 and 23-55. The adult learner age for this study was set at 23 and older, reflecting the practice of both Elmhurst and North Central Colleges of referring to students above the traditional college age of 18-22 as "adult" or "non-traditional." Including the sex of the respondent as a variable was another attempt to give a more complete picture of the learner. Reasons for taking the course were classified into three categories: Required, Curious and Purposeful. Grades were limited to A, B, and C. A possible relationship between the instructor's or classmates' encouragement and incidental learning was tested by comparing responses to those questions with the intended/incidental/already knew triad.

The next step in examining the data was to compare the variables with each other in an effort to locate more precisely the extent and direction of incidental learning in the course--in acquisition of skills, information and attitudes. In the analysis by secondary variable, significant differences could be placed with a particular response. Also, differences which, in the total group may have not been significant, gained importance when compared with another particular response group.

Findings. The study affirmed the presence of incidental learning among successful students. Respondents indicated incidental learning on every item in the questionnaire. The following general statements can be made: 1)Experience related to the discipline being studied has no relationship to incidental learning; 2)There is some relationship between the age of a student and incidental learning; 3)Whether the student is male or female has some relationship to incidental learning; 4)Individual reasons for undertaking a particular course have some relationship to incidental learning; 5)There is some relationship between the grade received in a particular course and incidental learning; 6)Encouragement of incidental learning by the instructor has no relationship to incidental learning, but encouragement by class members does have some relationship to incidental learning.

As the data were examined, it was decided to submit each of the variables to additional analysis, comparing them with each other in an effort to locate more precisely the extent of incidental learning in the course. The following statements represent conclusions drawn after analysis by secondary variables: 7)There is some relationship between taking or not taking a previous course in accounting and incidental learning when analyzed by: work experience in accounting, age, sex, reason for taking the course, grade received, instructor encouragement, and peer encouragement; 8)There is some relationship between working or not working in accounting and incidental learning when analyzed by: age, sex, reason for taking the course, grade received; 9)There is some relationship between being 22 and younger or 23 and older and incidental learning when analyzed by: sex, reason for taking the course, grade received, instructor encouragement, and peer encouragement; 10)There is some relationship between being male or female and incidental learning when analyzed by age, reason for taking the course, and grade received in the course; 11)There is some relationship between giving Required, Curious, or Purposeful as reasons for taking the course and incidental learning when analyzed by: age, sex, grade received in the course and peer encouragement; 12)There is some relationship between receiving an A, B or C grade in the course and incidental learning when analyzed by: age and peer encouragement; 13)There is some relationship between receiving or not receiving encouragement from the instructor to learn beyond course objectives and incidental learning when analyzed by age, sex, reason for taking the course, and peer encouragement; 14)There is some relationship between receiving or not receiving encouragement from peers to learn beyond course objectives and incidental learning when analyzed by: age and grade received in the course.

Each of the statements represents a complex of types of learning, as well as both positive and negative relationships, and needs to be examined in light of the statistical analysis for thorough understanding.

Conclusions and Implications. This study confirms the ubiquitousness of incidentally learned information, skills, and attitudes in a set of circumstances designed for purposeful learning. Incidental learning surfaces more forcefully in some areas--attitudes and application of knowledge to every day life --and with certain conditions present--the learner's motivation for being in the course, or the learner's age, for instance. Unintended learning is a definite part of the mosaic of a learning experience and, as suggested earlier, contributes to the learner's having acquired more knowledge than originally intended.

Implications for the practice of adult education include:

1) Incidental learning is a part of even the most structured course. It is an indication of interest, since there is no extrinsic reward for incidental learning. In course evaluation, students should be questioned about their incidental learning, so that the instructor can use the information in both self-evaluation and future course planning.
2) Adult students in need of review or additional information should be provided information leading them to sources of such material. Adjunct courses, learning centers, individual attention by the instructor, or tutors should be considered.
3) Time for students to interact informally with their peers and instructor should be built into adult programs. Study groups, in which students share their strengths, are almost unknown among employed adult students. Such student self-help should be encouraged.
4) Adults will learn incidentally due to coping skills they have acquired through life. They should be made aware that skill in incidental learning need not be left outside the classroom.
5) The instructor should not lose sight of the opportunity for fostering positive and realistic attitudes toward the subject matter.
6) Cultivation of incidental learning belongs in any study skills program.
7) Students' self-confidence can benefit from the knowledge that their incidental learning is a potential for most students.

8) Instructor encouragement to learn beyond course objectives was important for a number of students in need of Necessary and General Skills. Good practice, then, should include an attempt to encourage students to use their potential as incidental learners, both through assignments and suggestions for applications of course work in students' lives.
9) Those lacking experience in a subject need to be aware of their potential for incidental learning. Encouraging students to find review materials or resources puts them in charge of their own learning destiny, and encourages the independence and self-knowledge necessary for success.
10) Age is important. Not only should instructors vary their teaching for all traditional or all non-traditional classes, but they should adapt for classes mixing the two groups.
11) Analysis of the components of a course by Skills, Interests, and Attitudes provides tool for planning any course.
12) Additional work in understanding the particular requirements of a course could result in generalizations which could be valuable in planning and for training instructors in such analysis.

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"The Meliorist Position As A Philosophic Base for Adult Education"

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HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Since there is no necessity that a review of history begin with Genesis, it may be more useful to start in this instance with a report issued by the Adult Education Committee of the British Ministry of Reconstruction at the close of World War I. It may be a mark of the times that adult education was the concern of a Ministry of Reconstruction, but it certainly did no violence to the prevailing concept of Britain's adult educators who for at least a half century prior, had been attempting to shore up adult lives which had been broken and warped by the emerging Age of Industrialism.

The 1919 Report went beyond reconstruction in its thinking on the matter, however, and looked into the future, well beyond a still unimagined second world war, the loss of Empire, the rise of the Great Soviet system, and world-wide nationalism. In one magnificent sentence, the Report speaks directly to our profession and practice sixty-three years later:

> The necessary conclusion is that adult education must not be regarded as a luxury for a few exceptional persons here and there, nor as a thing which concerns only a short span of early manhood, but that adult education is a permanent national necessity, an inseparable aspect of citizenship, and therefore should be both universal and lifelong."[1] /Emphasis added/

For our minds, surfeited with such terms as "landmark" and "breakthrough" it is difficult to fully realize the magnitude of this pronouncement. It came at the national level of a victorious empire emerging from a horrible war, bereft of the flower of its young men. It looked at an ideal landscape where no human eye had gazed. It implied visions usually reserved to idealists and poets--not bureaucrats.

To minds thinking on democracy as a system of governance of, by, and for the governed, a system of shared power, benefits, and responsibilities, it echoed the spirit of enlightenment spoken by Thomas Jefferson, when he said that it was impossible to have democracy and ignorance together in one nation, and foolish to expect it.

Regardless, however, of the change in focus from remediation to development which The Report of 1919 signaled, there remains a connecting thread from the past in adult education, described by Pole[2] and Kelly.[3] And it is this spirit, which betokens an underlying philosophy, that we shall briefly examine.

PHILOSOPHICAL LINEAGE

At the time of The 1919 Report, another vision of a better future for humankind was attracting attention, destined as it was to form the base (albeit distorted by application as most ideals are) of another empire which emerged as that of Britain declined. Karl Marx, who regarded himself as a scientist and not a philosopher, had caught the mind of revolutionaries in Russia as Rousseau and others had caught the mind of American

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colonials in the mid-eighteenth century. Marx saw how, he believed, societies would go through stages of opposing and destroying capitalism on a thesis, antithesis, synthesis pattern in which workers deposed management, formed a temporary dictatorship for corrective purposes, with a final withering away of the state. This would yield a harmonious form of society not unlike primitive communism, practiced at times by early Christian groups.

Enter meliorism, a belief based on the Latin word melior, meaning "better." The miliorist doctrine is that humankind, while incapable of perfection, is capable of indefinite improvement. This applies both to the individual person and to society, and the race. Very simple and attractive, this doctrine was adapted and extended most notably by Charles Peirce and William James in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

To understand James (1842-1910) it is necessary to look at his inheritance through his father, Henry James, Sr., of views of Emanual Swedenborg (1688-1772). This scientist-theologian, graduate of Uppsala University, viewed reality as an organic hierarchy starting with the mathematical point and ultimately rising to God. There existed, as Swedenborg believed, both the natural and the ideal levels, and people lived their lives simultaneously in both realms. What helps one, it is reasonable to believe, helps the other.

Back now to William James, Harvard College and Medical School graduate. Here was the rising tide of scientism beating on the shores of Puritan New England. This son of a theologian, who taught both anatomy and psychology before becoming Profesor of Philosophy, felt the tension between science and religion. He tried to find joint affirmation of these powers in his thinking. The "specious present" described the real duration in which we exist, connected to past and future. And in this "specious present" the options of life force us at times into choices. It is impossible to be neutral, James declared in The Will to Believe,[4] and in chosing we may may believe "beyond the evidence."

Adult education, in practice, has long believed beyond the evidence. Meliorist to the core, we seek those small increments for the individual person, almost in random patterns, believing that "education forms the modern mind," and even if all will not be well because of our efforts, it certainly will be better. With James and Peirce, we hold that not to chose is itself a choice.

Charles Peirce, 1839-1914, philosopher, mathematician and psysicist (isn't it remarkable how often the "exact or hard" sciences invite "soft" speculation!) wished ideas to be interpreted in terms of consequences. Adult educators have in their best moments, certainly followed his lead. And in another way we may also owe a debt to this remarkable American. Truth, as he saw it, is a matter of degree. Truth "happens to an idea," if, that is, conditions of consequences of that idea bear good fruit. Said otherwise, ideas and their "truth" change and develop over time. Peirce proposed three tests of truth: (a) the test of theoretical consistency; (b) the test factual support; and (c) the test of giving our practical energies "something to press against."

To adult education, this suggests that a doctrine which presents humankind with a world in which they can not live lives of meaning can not be true (and must be resisted). On this basis, those adult educators of conscience will reject both atheism and social horrors of dictatorship, mind control, caste systems, and unchosen poverty.

Meliorist adult educators will chose toleration as an essential ingredient of betterment (attainable in small stages) for both individual people and their society. This term (toleration) began its useful life in the English vocabulary in the sixteenth century--a time when the commodity was in short supply between warring Roman Catholics and Protestants. In advocacy of toleration we are in the good company of Jeremy Taylor, Spinoza (his interest was surprisingly pragmatic), John Locke, Voltaire ("I disapprove of what you say but will defend to the death your right to say it," and Rousseau.

Both melioration and toleration are essential ingredients of what future adult educators have sought, so eloquently described by Robert J. Blakely in a speech in Canada in 1953: "We reject the notion that there is no meaning in life and in history. We reject the notion that meaning is given to life and to history by some determinism, whether religious or philosophical or scientific or other. . . . We all believe that the proper questions are. . . .'Where do we want to go, and how do we get there?'. . .'What shall we do and how shall we do it?' We look for meaning and salvation--not from any master race, or any master nation, or any elite, or any great man--but from ourselves."[5]

It is in the community, in the mutuality of restricted locale, that the meliorism of adult education flourishes, in its best expression. People live together, in affective and geographic proximity, with purpose. They exhibit a commonality of intentions, of desires, and common usefulness. In this, adult education has the seed-bed to start many things growing, and an examination of activities and programs of adult education, from its many sponsors and providers, should clearly reveal this nobility of purpose, this magnanimity of spirit to serve and uplift. Alas! What does it appear that we are about?

CURRENT CONCERNS

The adult educators who once spoke of glowing futures now accept Naisbitt[6] prophesy that "Things are not going to get better. . . . only different, and we must get used to uncertainty." Samplings of topics offered by a variety of institutions (see Appendix A) showed fragments, bits and pieces, but no master design, no view of the whole. Among these topics are: "After Divorce: Re/Creation and Re/Pairing"; Beginning Painting"; "Strategies for Success"; "Wills, Trusts, and Estate Planning"; "Construction Project Management"; "Computer Usage in Nursing Practice"; "Marketing Strategies"; "Principles of Accounting"; "How to Increase Productivity Through a Motivated Staff"; "Holiday Home Decorating"; "Computer Science--BASIC."

TO THE FUTURE

At this point, it can be seen that there is much melioration at the level of application, with regard for the specific. We do not see evidence of ideational melioration in the main stream of U.S., and much of international adult education. Can we accept the largely unspoken implications of what our curricula in adult education will effect as the raison d'etre, the summum bonum? Who describes, who authenticates, who blesses the meliorist position and its implications for the people.

If we believe in natural improvement, why do we work so unnaturally to hasten it on? And why do we teach people to "manage" their stress, to "cope" with what is? Our position seems to contain major contradictions. Left to its own devices, the world will, as Coue would have had it, get better and better. And we teach accpetance, with just a tad of improvement. We do not teach re-examination of the system and its subsystems, together with their goals, their vision of the future.

It may well be that the base on which much of adult, continuing, further, and lifelong education rests needs at least uncovering and dusting off. It may, like the Statue of Liberty, need major rebuilding.

APPENDIX A

University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL

Chestnut Hill College, Philadelphia, PA

Manchester Community College, Manchester, CT

Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI

The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA

SUNY College of Technology, Utica, NY

Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY

FOOTNOTES

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A CURRENT LOOK AT "MODERN PRACTICE": PERCEIVED AND OBSERVED SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES OF THE SAME TEACHERS IN ADULT AND PRE-ADULT CLASSROOMS

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There is a substantial body of literature which offers compelling evidence that adults differ from pre-adults in ways that are likely to, and should, affect the behavior of teachers. The advice of the most respected leaders in the field of adult continuing education (e.g., Lindeman, 1926; Bergevin, 1967; Kidd, 1973; Knowles, 1978) has defined specific, learner-centered principles for such teaching. While these prescriptions have proved important in developing the foundations of the field, few descriptive studies have attempted to analyze the actual practices of teachers in adult and pre-adult classrooms. This study was undertaken to extend a line of inquiry begun by Beder and Darkenwald (1982) to provide a description of current practice from which grounded instructional theory and prescriptions for training adult education practitioners might subsequently be developed. As Beder and Darkenwald advised, "until these similarities and differences are better understood, it will be difficult to build empirically grounded theories of adult instruction. It can of course be argued that prescriptive theories need not be empirically grounded, but it seems illogical to try to improve on current practice without first understanding what current practice is" (1982, p. 154).

Phase One: Reported Similarities and Differences

Phase One of the study, which was essentially a replication of Beder and Darkenwald's research, analyzed similarities and differences in teaching adults and pre-adults (TEACHDIF), as well as perceptions of the differences between adults and pre-adults as learners (LEARNDIF), as reported by 115 university, community college, and public school teachers who taught in both adult and pre-adult programs. The teachers, who were identified by appropriate administrators from nine institutions, completed a slightly modified version of a questionnaire developed by Beder and Darkenwald and used in their study. Results from this sample were very similar to those obtained from the Beder/Darkenwald sample: teachers in both studies reported that they perceived adults as significantly more intellectually curious, motivated to learn, willing to take responsibility for their learning, willing to work hard at learning, clear about what they want to learn, concerned with the practical applications and implications of learning, and less emotionally dependent on the teacher than pre-adults. They also reported that they were significantly less directive and less structured when teaching adults and that they provided more emotional support when teaching pre-adults. In both studies, the magnitude of reported differences in teaching was highly related to the degree to which adults and pre-adults were perceived as different and to the extent to which the teacher believed he/she should teach different groups differently.

Phase Two: Observed Similarities and Differences

Phase Two of this study analyzed the actual (observed) teaching practices of 15 teachers, whose classroom interaction patterns in both adult and pre-adult classes were categorized and recorded using the French and Galloway IDER (Indirect-Direct/Encouraging-Restrictive) system of behavioral analysis (French, 1968).[1] Subjects for Phase Two were selected to maximize and minimize TEACHDIF and LEARNDIF scores, with additional selection criteria employed to minimize the introduction of confounding variables. Individual and overall interaction differences were analyzed, as were differences in three descriptive ratios (Flanders, 1970, pp. 102-

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103): the Teacher Response Ratio (TRR), which corresponds to the teacher's tendency to react to the ideas and feelings of the students; the Teacher Question Ratio (TQR), which represents the tendency of a teacher to use questions when guiding the more content-oriented part of the classroom discussion; and the Pupil Initiation Ratio (PIR), which indicates the proportion of student talk judged to be an act of initiation. Lag analysis (Sackett, 1978) was used to analyze sequential patterns of behavior, with the frequency with which each interaction type (1-20 as a matching category) followed each interaction type (1-20 as a criterion category) analyzed at 10 successive 3-second intervals to 30 seconds (LOLAG 1, HILAG 10).

The magnitude of differences between comparison groups was calculated by determining the average of the absolute values of differences on each interaction measure. The direction of differences between groups was calculated by determining the average of the signed values of differences. While only TEACHDIF and LEARNDIF scores were used as comparison categories to select teachers for observation, the Phase Two population proved to be representative of the overall survey population on several other dimensions. Thus, differences in interaction patterns were also analyzed for comparison groups selected on nine additional characteristics suggested by Phase One or by previous research to be related to teaching differences: age, years experience teaching adults, reported knowledge of the theory/philosophy of adult education and of adult development and learning, belief that children and adolescents should be taught differently from adults, gender, level of pre-adult class, type of adult class (degree program or personal enrichment), classroom environment (same, different site but same arrangement, different site and arrangement), and subject taught.

Findings

As they had reported in Phase One, teachers did tend to provide more emotional support to pre-adults through use of praise and encouragement and more instances of acceptance of student feelings. They were also more overtly directive with pre-adults, with instances of criticism or justification of authority only in pre-adult classes. The overall use of directive teacher behavior was, however, essentially the same with both adults and pre-adults; where teachers were overtly directive with pre-adults, they used more subtle, nonverbally restricting behaviors with adults. This was not congruent with reported differences in teaching. On the average, teachers talked 71% of the time in adult classes and 73% of the time in pre-adult classes.

The proportion of student talk (22%) in adult classes was not appreciably greater than the proportion (18%) in pre-adult classes. Student talk in adult classes was, however, much more often judged to be initiated by the students rather than responsive to teacher prodding or questioning. Adult students talked longer and interacted more with one another without teacher influence between individual student comments. When students in adult classes appeared to be finished responding to a question or discussing a point they had initiated, teachers moved rather quickly to exerting direct influence--usually lecturing or giving information. When students in pre-adult classes appeared to be finished responding to a question or discussing a point they had initiated, teachers more often used indirect influence to urge continued discussion. The percentage of time coded as "silence or confusion" was similar in adult and pre-adult classes. In adult classes, however, silence more often directly followed a teacher's question, with student response(s) and then teacher direct influence following that silence. In pre-adult classes, teacher questions were most often followed by immediate, short student responses, then silence which was in turn followed by teacher encouragement of additional student talk.

In interviews with the teachers in the observation sample, they spoke often of the responsiveness of adult students and of the quality of discussion in adult classes. Interaction analysis supported the idea that adult students do interact differently than do pre-adult students. These differences, however, did not appear to influence teachers to adopt the less directive, more student-centered approach to teaching adults they had reported. Had they, in fact, been only equally as encouraging with adults and pre-adults, and equally as likely to build on student responses to questions and student-initiated ideas with adults as they were with pre-adults, there would probably have been substantially more time devoted to student talk in adult classes; however, as students became more responsive, teachers maintained the balance of teacher-student interaction through increasing their directive and nonverbally restrictive behaviors.[2]

Thus, although teachers in this study reported differences between teaching adults and pre-adults that are very much in line with the prescriptive literature of adult education, the analysis of actual teaching practice concurred with the theory of static role performance suggested by Scheflen (1972, 1973) and Goffman (1959, 1974). As Scheflen described, teachers were likely to carry out their roles as teachers in customary, predictable ways which "tend to be constant for many years or even a lifetime....a person at a particular kind of transaction provides a rather stable source of behavior, and his presence provides a fairly consistent 'environment' for the behavior of others who know his role" (1972, p. 126). Scheflen further describes the role of nonverbal (metacommunicative) regulators in maintaining predictable role interaction patterns, noting that individuals and institutions exert considerable energy to maintain these learned role relationships and behaviors, even when they are not aware of doing so:

> While the controls of the institution are being imposed kinesically, the lexical system can be used to imply democratic processes and free choices that are in fact not operating. Thus the literal-minded institution member does not notice what is happening. The kinesic regulators take much of their power from this incongruence. (pp. 144-145)

Discussion

As Beder and Darkenwald (1982) have noted, informed professional opinion, philosophical assumptions associated with humanistic psychology and progressive education, and the growing body of research and theory on adult learning and development provide compelling evidence that adults differ from pre-adults in ways that are likely to affect the behavior of teachers. This study indicated, however, that despite the common sense of this notion, the cause-effect relationship of differences in learners resulting in differences in teaching is not apparent. If a student-centered (andragogical) approach to teaching adults is, in fact, desirable, then the practical question facing persons who staff adult education programs or provide preservice or inservice training for adult education practitioners is how to approach selecting or creating teachers who use that approach.

Although this study did not specifically investigate the relationship of training to teacher behavior, it offers some evidence that training teachers in techniques especially suitable for the adult student is a more effective means of effecting change than training which is directed toward instilling desired attitudes toward adult learners in those teachers. Although followers of the Method school of acting would argue that techniques adopted without perceptual alteration will result in nonverbally incongruent "leakage" as a role is performed, perceptual alteration alone does not seem to result in actual changes in performance of the teaching role in adult classes. While teachers who believed most strongly that adults and pre-adults were different as learners and that the two groups should be taught differently reported that they taught adults and pre-adults differently, these variables were not clearly related to actual practice of the kinds of teaching differences suggested in the prescriptive literature and reported by those teachers. Furthermore, the amount of knowledge of the theory and philosophy of adult education and of adult development and learning reported by teachers (which was significantly related to the amount of formal training in adult education) was not related to a more student-centered approach in adult classes. (Teachers with more formal training in adult education, in fact, tended to be in the less responsive group of teachers.) The only case in which analysis by comparison groups suggested clear use of the more student-centered approach prescribed for teaching adults was where the room arrangement and proxemic relationship of teacher and students was changed, with a less traditional, less formal arrangement used in the adult class. There was, furthermore, evidence that this change in instructional technique altered teacher-student interaction patterns even where the teacher did not perceive adults and pre-adults as different or believe strongly that the two groups should be taught differently. Additional research, using larger comparison groups selected to maximize and minimize differences in the environmental variable (as well as other technique variables) would clarify these findings. It is interesting to note that all of the teachers who altered the environment in their adult class were women; an analysis of the effects of less structured, less traditional environments in the classes of male teachers--who were observed in the present study and in the Fowler (1972) study to be more structured and directive with both adult and pre-adult students than were female teachers--would enhance the generalizability of the insights suggested by this study.

The selection of teachers for adult education programs also seems to be of potential importance.[3] In this study, less experienced teachers, female teachers, teachers who taught personal enrichment adult classes, secondary teachers, and teachers reporting high teaching differences were inclined to be more flexible and responsive in both adult and pre-adult classes than were teachers in other comparison groups. It should be noted that, for most of the teachers observed in this study, the TRR and PIR were substantially greater than Flanders' norms, even in pre-adult classes. It is possible that even where this study discerned no significant differences between the adult and pre-adult classes of the same teachers, differences would exist in comparison to interaction patterns of teachers who had not taught both kinds of students; interaction patterns developed in teaching adults might affect the teacher's behavior in pre-adult classes as much as the latter influenced the former. Further investigation could add to understanding of the gestalt of teaching experience on the performance roles of teachers.

Further research is also needed to clarify the relationships between actual teaching practices and learning outcomes in adult education classes. Examples of such research are readily available in pre-adult education (e.g., Amidon & Hough, 1967); without such investigations in adult learning situations it will not be possible to generate grounded prescriptive theories of adult instruction. Insofar as studies such as that of Amidon and Giammateo (Amidon & Hough, 1967, pp. 186-188) have identified interaction patterns in pre-adult classrooms of teachers identified as "master" teachers as less directive and more student-centered than such patterns in classrooms of "average" teachers, the most cogent prescription might be to define responsive teaching techniques as the approved practice for educators at all levels, focusing on lifelong learning--including pre-adult education--rather than on developing a separate theory applicable only to adults.

Conclusion

Adult learning is, of course, not limited to the classroom, although it is not uncommon for adult education pregrams to be organized around rather traditional course/class offerings. While this study was limited to analysis of teacher-student interaction in classroom settings, the findings have implications on a broader scale. If the static role performance theory predicts actual interactional relationships, then it is unlikely that teachers and students can at one point in life engage in one kind of (pedagogical) role performance and, at another point in life, shift automatically to a different kind of (andragogical) role performance. If, as adult educators, we are interested in linking prescriptive theory to practice, then we need to understand the factors which are likely to trigger pedagogical role performance and refine techniques which confuse pro forma adoption of learned roles. Interaction analysis should be an important part of such research. Without an objective description of the nature of teaching-learning interactions, conceptually grounded instructional theory cannot be generated, nor can the effectiveness of preservice and inservice training programs for adult education practitioners be accurately evaluated.

Notes

[1] The IDER system of behavioral analysis is based largely on the widely-used Flanders interaction analysis system (Flanders, 1970), with additional coding of nonverbally encouraging and restricting (metacommunicative) teacher behavior in each category. The categories were recoded into 20 separate interaction types to facilitate computer analysis in this study.

[2] Adult students did not appear to object to this teacher-directed interaction. When asked whether there was anything they would like done differently in the classes observed, none of the students suggested changes in structure; where suggestions were offered, they generally referred to changes in content only.

[3] See also C. Schneider, G.O. Klemp, & S. Kastendiek, The Balancing Act--Competencies of Effective Teachers and Mentors in Degree Programs for Adults (Chicago: University of Chicago and McBer and Company, 1981).

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French & Galloway
Indirect/Direct--Encouraging/Restrictive (IDER)
Interaction Categories

	Category	Description of Interaction (verbal--nonverbal)
Indirect Teacher Influence	1	Accepts student feeling
	2	Praises or encourages--Incongruent
	3	Praises or encourages--Congruent
	4	Uses student idea--Perfunctory
	5	Uses student idea--Implement
	6	Asks questions--Impersonal
	7	Asks questions--Personal
Direct Teacher Influence	8	Lectures or gives information--Unresponsive
	9	Lectures or gives information--Responsive
	10	Gives directions--Dismiss
	11	Gives directions--Involve
	12	Criticizes or justifies authority--Harsh
	13	Criticizes or justifies authority--Firm
Student Talk	14	Student talk (Response)--Inattentive
	15	Student talk (Response)--Receptive
	16	Student talk (Initiated)--Inattentive
	17	Student talk (Initiated)--Receptive
	18	Silence or confusion--Distress
	19	Silence or confusion--Comfort
	20	Student-student interaction

Odd-numbered categories indicate encouraging teacher nonverbal behavior; even-numbered categories (through 18) indicate restrictive teacher nonverbal behavior.

WORKERS' EDUCATION AND THE LABOR COLLEGE MOVEMENT: RADICAL TRADITIONS IN AMERICAN ADULT EDUCATION

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Gramsci and the concept of hegemony

In recent years, the writings of Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937) have become well-known outside of his native Italy. His Prison Notebooks especially, which was written while Gramsci lingered in one of Mussolini's jails (he was imprisoned from 1926 to 1937) has given rise to much discussion. Although Gramsci wrote on a wide variety of subjects, including Marxism, Italian history and literature, more attention has been paid to his concept of cultural "hegemony", i.e. how the ruling classes control the media and education. Gramsci's thinking has transcended his own time and place, and many of his themes have provided a conceptual framework for researchers who are concerned with the role of intellectuals in bringing about social and political change. For us as adult educators, Gramsci's insights provide a structure of inquiry for looking into a radical experiment in American workers' education that up to now has generally been ignored—the Labor College Movement. These schools of "higher learning" began to appear around the country early in the nineteenth century. By the mid-1920's over seventy had been established.

Although Gramsci never directly referred to higher education exclusively for workers, he did emphasize the importance and need for study groups that would address the issue of hegemony. He argued that society in its socializing process is inherently educational and that philosophy is an intrinsic activity in peoples' lives; all people are intellectuals in one form or another. Political education and indeed education in general, would lead to social and political transformation if it was usefully depicted in terms of a dialectic interaction between organic intellectuals (thinkers, leaders and organizers who anticipated the ultimate victory of the working class over the capitalist class) and ordinary people. (4:161-174) In 1932 he wrote: "An effective Jacobin force was always missing and could not be constituted; and it was precisely such a Jacobin force which in other nations awakened and organized the national popular will and founded the modern state." (4:172)

For Gramsci, the aim of political education of those committed to social transformation was to develop within the student a consciousness that rivaled the hegemony of the dominant culture. The hegemony in question is the consentual basis of an existing social, political and economic system within any civil society, including a capitalist social system. This consensus allows the state to deemphasize the concept of "domination" or its monopoly on violence to insure dominance. Thus, the beliefs, values, cultural traditions and myths which characterize the superstructure take on a new role and are continually perpetuated through the mass culture via state institutions, i.e. its media, law, churches and schools, to insure the relative stability of the existing order.

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Gramsci reasoned that a natural and logical consequence stressed the need to create a "counter-hegemonic" world view, or what he called "new integrated culture." This process must occur "organically," not as an event or a series of events. Transformation in consciousness is necessary for structural change in totality (social, political, and economic revolution) and must therefore embrace all aspects of society and all dimensions of human existence. This includes not only economic factors which most previous socialist theorists emphasized, but also social relations, politics, ideology and culture. In Gramsci's view, no realm of bourgeois society was outside the class struggle. Indeed, no set of human concern no matter how "mythological" or "superstitious" was irrelevant to the education and the politics of social transformation.

It has been suggested that Gramsci epitomizes the Hegelian side of Marx. He defends the proposition that materialism is revolutionary, not because it asserts the primacy of mind over matter, but because it centers around the concept of "praxis" viewed in terms of the dialectical merging of being and consciousness, matter and mind, theory and practice. This position rejected the mechanical-deterministic model of social transformation held by positivists and numerous members of the materialist tradition. Social and political transformation thus takes on a subjective dimension with human actors at the center of the transformation process. Gramsci's was not just an intellectual endeavor, but also a passionate, emotional commitment rooted deeply in everyday political struggle. In the Prison Notebooks he wrote: "My entire intellectual formation was of a polemical nature, so it is impossible for me to think disinterestedly or to study for the sake of studying. Only rarely do I lose myself in a particular strain of thought and analyze something for its own inherent interest. Usually, I have to engage in a dialogue, be dialectical, to arrive at some intellectual stimulation. I once told you how I hate tossing stones into the dark. I need an interlocutor, a concrete adversary, even in a family situation." (4:34)

Labor colleges and the First Conference on Workers' Education

Gramsci's argument about hegemony and his claim of its presence in the institutions of civil society, was closely related to what the founders of the American labor colleges and their supporters were saying during the years immediately following World War I. It can only be speculated how long these themes had been salient topics of discourse among the intellectual vanguard that provided the thrust of the movement. Indeed, one of them, Charles Beard had been instrumental in the founding of Ruskin College, a notable European experiment in workers' education, at Oxford University, England. Beard brought the idea with him to the United States in 1900. He sought support from the American Federation of Labor Educational Committee, but little interest was shown and no financial aid was offered.

During the years just prior to World War I, a few labor colleges appeared, the most notable of which was a Finnish backed school located in Duluth, Minnesota. Named The Work Peoples' College, it existed as an institution of higher learning from 1903 to 1941 ". . . as a people's institute . . . teaching the subjects most important to the people, that is the workers." (2:225) Classes for workers were also offered by the Rand School for the Social Sciences, The National Women's Trade Union League, and the International Ladies Garment Workers' Union. All three organizations conducted educational activities in the New York City area. During the war years other labor colleges were established, and in 1920 it became one of the first tasks of the newly formed Committee on Workers' Education to organize a national conference dealing exclusively with higher education for workers. But first it was necessary to secure information as to "the extent and nature of the movement." (8:133)

The convention itself was to be held on April 2, 1921, so in January of that year, questionnaires were sent to 26 "educational enterprises" located in 22 cities in the United States. The completed forms, which were returned by all 26 institutions, showed signs that there was a wide range of counter-hegemonic activity. Indeed, schools throughout the continental United States were represented, although Southern "educational experiments" were noticeably absent from the list.

The survey revealed other interesting and revealing data. All completed questionnaires indicated that the major objective was "to spread education among the rank and file." (8:135) Sixteen considered the training of future union leaders as the major immediate goal, while only three regarded propaganda as a salient aspect of their activities. Most of the questionnaires indicated that the need for social and political equality in the United States could become a reality only through the means of a "constructive social revolution." The Boston Labor College was organized, according to its founders, ". . . (with) the belief that progress for organized wage earners can be assured by social and industrial policies shaped by their own right thinking, (our emphasis) and that their ambitions for self-betterment must therefore include a concern for the higher training of the mind." (8:136)

The Gramscian theme of education for the creation of a counter-hegemony was further illustrated in the responses of other labor college spokespersons. Educators from the St. Paul Labor College designed their program to "provide first, trained and educated workers; second to develop better citizens; third, to afford some enjoyment of hitherto denied." (8:136-137) Founders of the Workers' College of Greater New York hoped "to train workers to think fundamentally and constructively about economic questions." (8:132) Those forming the leadership of the Amherst Labor College offered classes for workers "as an expression of the belief that an opportunity for liberal education should be open to all who feel the need for it," and to establish a "working connection between Amherst College and a group of working men and women . . . so that each may offer to the other, the window of wisdom that has been gaining through its experience and the joint problem applied to the solution of problems that are common to all." (8:141) The comments of those associated with the Cleveland Workers' University echoed the Gramscian model and illustrated a general view of the position taken by the large majority of other labor college participants. The primary aim of the school was "to develop intellectual thinking, class-conscious members, trained to understand their part in order that they may interpret the present and assist in the creating of the free society of the future." (8:103)

The reports showed that in 15 cities, classes met in union halls; in 13 cities they assembled in public school buildings. Others reported that classes met in libraries or "other rented facilities." (8:137) The Rand School, The Work People's College of Duluth, Minnesota, and Brookwood owned their own buildings. Those using union halls for classrooms preferred this setting because there was a "greater freedom and independence" because of "prejudice of workers towards public schools," (our emphasis) and because of "fear of hostile interests," because "workers are more at home in the labor halls," and because "students are more class-conscious there." (8:138)

Total enrollment approached 10,000. Seven schools reported an enrollment of less that 25; seven had 25 to 50 students participating on a regular basis; three counted 50 to 100 in attendance; six had enrollments of 100 to 300 students; one reported 1000 and another 2000. The Rand School's enrollment nearly equaled the total population of all the other labor schools combined, having at times, 5000 in attendance. (8:137) Most colleges reported that older men attended classes. Students under the age of 30 represented only 25% of the enrollment in 6 schools, while 7 other institutions reported less than 50% were in that age group. Only 4 schools noted that those under the age of 30 represented a majority of their enrollment. (8:131)

Fifteen schools recruited students entirely from the ranks of the trade union movement. Five indicated that 75% of the student body were members of labor organizations. Nineteen schools noted that they did not discriminate against non-union members, and all but five readily admitted non-union members. One accepted them by special permission. Another charged a double fee for entry. (8:129)

In all, 35 courses of study were offered, including English, History (United States, European, the labor movement), literature, sociology, current events, "Democratic Control of Industry," music, psychology, health, women's problems, boycotts and strike tactics, and social ethics. (8:133)

Other data dealt with such matters as reason for absenteeism, teacher training, experience, and salaries, time and frequency of class meetings, length of courses, resources such as text books that were used, philosophies of teaching methods and approaches, fees (if any) and available scholarships. (8:140)

The first Conference on Workers' Education in the United States was attended by hundreds of "concerned and interested" parties. The opening statements of the Secretary of Amherst College Classes for Workers, F. Stacy May, addressed the pressing issue of the gathering, unequivocally. His comments, which could be literally plucked from the *Prison Notebook*, were directed at the unfair nature of America's colleges and universities, for they "*inevitably tended to reflect the needs and interests of the group for which they are intended*." (our emphasis) "Every college," continued May, "offers and even requires many courses which are useful chiefly *to maintainan established program that has come to be accepted as a necessary requisite of the 'educated gentleman'* and workers must counteract his particular prejudice so that 'a required course of study may *contribute to their culture in its broadest sense*,' doing much to make colleges genuinely useful organs of society." (8:31-35; our emphasis)

In another speech, Famia M. Cohen, Secretary of the Educational Department of International Ladies' Garment Workers, set the tone for the convention, pointing out that "true democracy should prevail within the domain of Workers' Education," by insuring that "the teacher . . . (has) a voice in the planning of the work and that those who are being educated should have a say as to what is being taught." With an eloquence that initiated considerable applause and cheering throughout the hall, she outlined the goals of workers' education: "It has always been our conviction that the labor movement stands, consciously or unconsciously for the reconstruction of society. It strives for a new life. It dreams of a world where economic and social justice will prevail, where the welfare of mankind will be the aim of all activity, where society will be organized as a cooperative commonwealth, where a sturdy love and fellowship capable of enduring daily wear and tear will replace competitive greed, distrust, and selfishness. To attain this need, it is necessary not only to accumulate knowledge, but to _develop a social conscious_ . . . the student must be trained for self-expression. . . . he should obtain an understanding of the great economic and social problems, and social facts which confront him." (8:47; our emphasis)

Antonio Gramsci would have agreed.

Adult education historians and the labor colleges

The labor college movement was a significant and widespread alternative in the American history of adult education, yet the three major "official" historians (Adams, Grattan, and Knowles) virtually ignore if not dismiss it. One must ask why would "objective" historians ignore an historical event involving thousands of adults in organized education. Gramsci would not be surprised, for the official historian's task is to only report history that strengthens the existing hegemony. Further, omission of the study of counter-hegemonic movements robs the present day student of both an historical model and a critical alternative for developing programs.

James Truslow Adams in _Frontiers of Culture_, makes it clear that he sees adult education as a crucial factor in the development of American democracy. By linking adult education with American democracy, Adams does not deal with the fact that many questioned the assumption that America was indeed democratic. Thus the labor college movement (along with other people's struggles) is virtually excluded from his book. Adams denies the existence of workers as an exclusive class and notes that everyone is a worker. (1:208) He argues that because of the free education provided to everyone, workers had largely gotten what they wanted and as a result there was no workers' movement in the United States. Rather, he contends that the concept of "class" is un-American because of the fluidity of American society. Based upon these pre-conceived assumptions Adams denies the existence of any education ideas or institutions which sought to bring about social transformation.

C. Hartley Grattan's _In Quest of Knowledge_ similarly denies the existence of a radical tradition in American education. He rejects the existence of a workers' education movement especially one which is based upon class struggle in the U.S. He expresses a position which questions the legitimacy of education for social change itself: "There is, in fact, a fairly long tradition of educational activity on the 'left' where social reform gets badly mixed up with ideological particularism. This kind of educational enterprise is at best an effort to offer radical ideas in the market place and at worst shameless indoctrination of the self-selected customers. It is rarely concerned with education as such." (3:245) This is to suggest that official programs are not ideological simply because they contribute to the prevailing hegemony.

The labor college movement is casually dismissed because it was influenced by Communists and dominated by the Party and its sympathizers who sought to hide their subversive nature by naming their educational institutions after the Founding Fathers. This position is explicitly, if curiously, expressed in the following: "After the war they were declared subversive for they were, and always had been, simply 'transmission belts' for Communist propaganda, though they claimed to be Marxist 'schools.' Furthermore the workers' schools ". . . served to indoctrinate more intensively those already influenced by other means and thus served the fringe groups in the labor movement, rather than the main mass of the movement." (3:246)

Malcolm Knowles, in A History of the Adult Education Movement in the United States, pays scant attention to workers' education, limiting his history to a brief discussion of educational activities of the American Federation of Labor. The labor college movement is dismissed in a few short paragraphs. He provides no analysis of their function or contribution as a reasonable alternative to the dominant educational system. Furthermore, there is no discussion of how the government attempted to suppress the movement in the years immediately following World War I. He states: "These (the labor colleges) were highly specialized institutions and they did not provide an extensive orientation, and they did not produce an extensive development of residential labor colleges such as occurred from similar beginnings in England." (5:45)

Conclusion

One could conclude that if adult education today can be said to be merely a technology, a set of skills which are complementary to adultness, and that adult educators can be characterized by their lack of interest in critical analysis, surely part of the problem must rest with our official historians. However, Gramsci would recognize that these official historians were merely doing their job promoting an ideology which maintains the dominant culture. The unofficial histories will have to come from those persons committed to development of counter-hegemony.

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ASSESSMENT OF ADULT LEARNING STYLES

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of personal learning style implies that each individual possesses a unique manner of learning. Knowledge of an individual's best learning styles for the acquisition of knowledge or for the accomplishment of a specific project will assist the individual's learning efforts.

There have been a variety of researchers investigating the concept of learning styles (Hill, 1976; Dunn and Dunn, 1972; Kolb, 1976). Each emphasizes varying aspects of the concept of learning styles. This study used an approach originally developed by French (1975) and refined by Gilley (1975) and Cherry (1981) from the University of Tennessee.

According to French and Cherry, an individual's preferred learning style is that style, or mode, through which he or she learns best. However, a learning style is actually composed of a series of different modalities that together make up each person's unique style. These modalities include, but are not limited to: perceptual, cognitive, emotional, and social. The perceptual modality relates to the means that information is extracted from the environment by the senses. Cognitive refers to the mental processing of that information while emotional includes the personal feelings, attitude, personality states which influence information gathering, knowledge building, and the application of knowledge. Finally, the social modality reflects social sets which could inhibit or enhance the learning process for each individual (Cherry, 1981). Under each modality the subunits, or elements, served to specifically identify the possible approaches within that area.

This research emphasized only the perceptual modality -- or extraction of information by the senses -- which includes seven elements. These seven elements and brief characteristics of each include:

1) Print-oriented: Dependence on reading and writing

2) Aural: A listener; does not say much

3) Interactive: A talker; learns through discussion

4) Visual: Must have many visual stimuli and visual representations

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5) Haptic: Has to touch everything and everyone

6) Kinesthetic: Has to move about while learning

7) Olfactory: Learns through smell and taste.

French theorized that every learner has an individual preference or orientation related to one or more of the sensory-intake styles.

Based on this model Gilley (1978) developed and tested the first six of French's elements through the Multi-modal Paired Associates Learning Test (MMPALT). Gilley found that third grade students did possess individual differences in learning styles although the two most dominant styles were haptic and visual.

Cherry (1981) expanded and revised Gilley's test to include the olfactory element. The second version, MMPALT II, was used to collect data on adult learners. Cherry also developed a written self-report instrument to accompany the MMPALT II. This survey is entitled the Perceptual Modality Preference Survey (PMPS).

Purpose

The purpose of this research project was to utilize the MMPALT II and the PMPS to investigate the perceptual learning styles of adults. The research questions the project sought to answer included: (1) What are the preferred learning styles of adults? (2) Do different groups of adults exhibit any perceptual learning style characteristics or patterns? (3) Is there a correlation between the self-report (PMPS) score and the objective (MMPALT II) test results? (4) Do significant differences exist between sample groups, by sex, by age, or by previous education level?

METHODOLOGY

Instrumentation:

MMPALT II. The MMPALT II uses a paired-associates testing procedure. Each subtest measures a subjects' ability to discriminate and recall information in each of the seven perceptual modality elements. All information is presented in the modality being tested. Ten stimulus -response pairs were utilized in measuring each perceptual element. The administration consists of presentation of each stimulus -response pair for a specified amount of time; then only the 10 stimulus items are presented in a different order. The subject being tested has seven seconds of time to recall the correct response member of the pair.

PMPS. The purpose of the PMPS is to provide information on the subject's opinions concerning his or her own strengths or weaknesses in the seven perceptual modality elements. The survey consists of 42 questions with five possible responses. The results can then be compared with the results of the MMPALT II.

Collection of data:

Over 275 individuals were individually tested with the MMPALT II. Each section of the seven subtests of the MMPALT produced a score indicating strengths or weaknesses of that learning style. By comparing final scores, a rank order of the learning styles was produced for each subject. In addition, half of the subjects were administered the self-report assessment (PMPS) prior to the objective testing while the other half were administered the PMPS after the MMPALT II.

Subjects represented a variety of occupational groups including educators, administrators, support personnel, management personnel, military, and coast guard.

Statistical tests included the utilization of correlation tests to determine relationships between results of the MMPALT II and the PMPS. One way analysis of variance were performed on occupational groups, sex, age and education level.

Results:

The findings of the data present a picture of widely differing individual styles. The distribution of the obtained scores for all subjects is presented in Table I. The range of scores for all but kinesthetic and olfactory elements was 0-10. The condensed findings included:

1. The seven perceptual learning styles existed in the adults sampled.
2. There were measurable variations in the perceptual styles of the individuals.
3. Overall, the most dominant perceptual style found in adults was the visual element; the secondary elements were haptic and interactive. The olfactory style was the lowest scoring element.
4. There was very little correlation between subject self-reports and the empirical results of the MMPALT II.
5. Status and position had nothing to do with learning style strengths.
6. There were no significant differences by sex or education.

DISCUSSION:

Individual subjects could use the findings on the MMPALT II for future learning endeavors by using their strongest style when possible and by working to improve weaker ones.

Educators should consider planning future programs that increase the use of visual styles and interactive and haptic styles as major learning strategies.

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF OBTAINED SUBTEST SCORES OF ALL SUBJECTS

	Score											
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	$\bar{X}$
Subtest	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	
Print	26	24	29	28	30	38	29	29	13	15	14	3.74
Aural	12	23	25	32	36	33	34	36	16	20	8	4.81
Interactive	5	18	26	33	41	32	27	36	24	17	16	5.13
Visual	6	7	10	15	16	21	25	26	35	46	68	7.08
Haptic	3	21	36	24	42	44	25	22	21	22	15	4.99
Kinesthetic	16	38	41	62	48	30	25	11	2	2	0	3.31
Olfactory	78	98	52	27	11	7	2	0	0	0	0	1.36

N = 275

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Predicting On-The-Job Performance: Evaluation of a Training Program[1]

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INTRODUCTION

Training programs in business and industry are solutions to remedy discrepancies between individuals' knowledge, skills and those required to function adequately on the job (Laird, 1978). The bottom line evaluation of success in training is whether the identified discrepancies have been closed (Dick & Carey, 1978). A usual pattern in designing a training program is to identify individual performance deficiencies in the larger organization, single out those caused by a lack of skill or knowledge, and design learning activities to upgrade the skill or knowledge (Dick & Carey, 1978; Kemp, 1977; Russell and Johanningsmeier, 1981). An assumption of skill and knowledge deficiencies is often made for newly hired employees because of the lack of experience in the organization whereby the standard performance level can be demonstrated. The challenge in evaluating such a training program is to predict future on-the-job performance on the basis of pre and post skill and knowledge levels demonstrated within the training environment.

At the heart of this study/investigation is the problem of measuring pretest - posttest performance changes in a training program for newly hired employees and then to relate these data to on-the-job assessment. This is an extremely complicated statistical area where solutions have not been developed for regular use that are deemed adequate to meet the needs of the situation. Admittedly, the pretest-posttest change issue is but one problem to be examined within the context of "measuring program effects" - usually associated with an experimental design and rigorous statistical application. This report is contained within the area of measuring program effects but is limited to an assessment of the measuring procedure, the measurement instruments, and an appropriate procedure for interpreting the data. On the topic of measuring program effects, Cole and Nitko (1981) conclude that their work:

> raises the crucial questions but does not provide the crucial answers. It is important that evaluators, aware of the complexities and consequences of answers, explicitly address the questions raised in the guide and seek the best answers for the particular local circumstances, pressures and practicalities (p. 60).

In selecting one or more statistical methods for assessing program effects, one typically encounters the problem of how to measure student growth. It is probably the most misunderstood and technical issue in data analysis.

The training program on which this study is based is the Commercial Banking Program of a large Canadian financial institution. This program is designed to provide systematic development of M.B.A.'s and C.A.'s destined for

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[1] A final, expanded paper is available from the authors.

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the role of senior Account Managers in the Commercial marketplace. Each new hire attends a standardized two-month intensive training program aimed at providing a common fundamental understanding of core commercial banking skills. The following 10 month period of on-the-job training emphasizes exposure to the practical aspects of account management within the institutional framework of the organization. At the end of the twelve month period, each employee is evaluated for on-the-job performance and is assigned to a substantive post.

METHOD

Subjects were 102 participants in the program divided into four independent groups. Each group was assessed using a self-assessment questionnaire which was completed before and after the two-month program. An achievement test was administered at the completion of the program. Data collection extended over a sixteen month period.

A self-report questionnaire prepared for the Commercial Banking Program was used to provide feedback to candidates and instructors in the program and to staff who are responsible for development and evaluation of the program. Whereas such instruments are routinely used in training programs, the psychometric properties are rarely assessed. Thus, the first task was to describe the reliability, validity and the structural properties and the second was to provide an analysis of the resulting data to serve as a basis for course revision, instrument modification, and validation of program effectiveness. The major limitation in this project, from a statistical perspective, is the relatively small number of persons providing a massive data base (N = 102). Because instructional groups were not representative samples in the usual sense of sampling from a population, descriptive rather than inferential statistics are assumed. This is a limitation in terms of statistics but the authors argue that appropriate methodology is required for analysis of such data and offer an example in this report of one procedure for evaluation of the program.

The questionnaire consisted of five parts (lending, funding, business development, supportive, and managerial) having a total of 137 items. Each item used a six-point scale for reporting knowledge and skill ranging from nil to a great deal. Items were clustered to represent twenty-two components of the training program.

Analysis of the questionnaire results was completed by using LERTAP (Nelson, 1974) which is a computer program having a flexible and powerful item and test analysis routine with the primary objective to serve test development and test scoring purposes. LERTAP computes statistical indices related to the quality of each test item and for affective scales, such as used in this study, a product-moment correlation of each item with designated criteria. A Hoyt analysis of variance routine is used to provide estimates of test reliability and standard error of measurement.

Results from the LERTAP analysis on the pre and post questionnaire items for each part and total revealed Hoyt reliabilities greater than .9 (very high) for all groups. The five parts of the questionnaire intercorrelated moderately (r's from .3 to .7) as desired indicating that all parts of the questionnaire were measuring a general competency phenomenon but as well each part was contributing unique variance to the total score. With total test score used as an internal criterion, each part of the test correlated moderate to strong with total test score which is a psychometric characteristic desired of tests designed for the purpose intended in the Commercial Banking Program. In terms of internal characteristics of the 137 item test, we may thus conclude that the instrument is of high quality for producing reliable scores for candidates in the training program.

FINDINGS

Confirmation of reliable results led to an assessment of the pattern of responses made on the pre and post questionnaires. Correlation between all groups over the 137 items from the pre-assessment administration were generally .9 or higher thus indicating a consistent and very similar pattern of results for the different groups. This was the expected result as the different groups were deemed equivalent and is thus confirmed by the data. Further, the 137 items from the post assessment questionnaire were correlated for all groups. The modal correlation was .8 indicating that the training sessions had a slight differential training effect which, indeed, is an expected result given that there are individual differences among the training candidates in terms of their various abilities to comprehend course material. Here, however, the focus should be upon the nature of highly similar patterns (represented by correlations having values about .8) rather than the marginal differences from post to pre assessment results.

Having documented similar patterns of results for all groups, the next step was to determine the nature and magnitude of differences between the pre and post assessment results from the self-report questionnaire. In all cases, the group results revealed a positive and statistically significant change from pre to post program. In terms of candidates' responses, the training program had the intended effect of producing the desired change.

An achievement test was administered at the completion of the program and, as it was an achievement test written under usual examination conditions, may be considered more valid for institutional decision-making purposes. At this stage one could use regression analysis procedures in terms of the desired data analysis but it was deemed inappropriate given the small sample size. However, analysis of variance procedures incorporate the same statistical model and are more suited to the analysis of data from sub-groups in terms of the purpose for this study. Accordingly, candidates in each group were classified on the basis of achievement test scores into a low group (scores 74% or lower) and a high group (scores 75% or higher). The value for separating the two groups was determined by calculating the mean and then structuring the two groups to have a slightly greater number in the high group because, on the basis of candidate selection for the training program, all individuals were deemed competent to superior competent. Hence, if there was concern over the performance demonstrated by individuals it would likely only be regarding a very small number of candidates who did less well on the achievement test. As a further validation of results, an analysis was conducted on the gain from the pre to post questionnaire results independently for the low and high achieving groups. The results were consistent to those reported previously in that all sub-groups reported a significant gain score.

At this time one question discussed was "How did the low achievers rate themselves in comparison with the high achievers?" For purposes of simplicity, the data from the four low achieving groups were aggregated and also that for the high achieving groups. The interesting result following an analysis of the data was that for 64.6% of the items the low achieving group rated themselves more competent than the high achieving group. For 1.1% of the items there was no difference but the high achieving group rated themselves more competent than the low achieving group on 34.3% of the items. Clearly, in terms of the achievement results, the low achieving group had an inflated opinion of their competency. Details of explanation are presented in the subsequent expanded paper outlining the details of the study.

DISCUSSION

Questions may be raised regarding the validity of the self-report questionnaire and the achievement test but are difficult to answer with the available data base. However, an alternate analysis is suggested. Data analysis techniques used in the above procedures largely rely upon variation of mean scores rather than patterns of variation or analysis using principles based upon variance for analysis of discrimination. A descriptive technique, dual scaling (Nishisato, 1980), was thus used to explain the discrepancy between the two sets of results. When the set of test scores was analyzed using dual scaling procedures, it became apparent that the high achievement group was responding more consistently and in a similar pattern among individuals. The low achieving group was more heterogeneous and tended to have higher scores on self-report data from a variety of items differentially selected within the entire set of items on the questionnaire. Details of mapping the competency domain and associated scores are presented in the expanded paper.

Candidates in trainee positions for groups one and two had completed "management performance appraisal" forms in their files which served as an unobtrusive assessment of on-the-job performance. When this report was written, individuals in groups three and four had not completed the first stage of the trainee program and did not have performance appraisals on file. Given the highly selected nature of the trainees, completion of the MBA or equivalent experience/educational programs, and that each was assessed by different supervisors in a wide range of geographical locations, assignment of individuals into "competent", "high competent" or "superior competent" performance categories was expected and did result. With the exception of one individual, candidates receiving a "competent" status rating (the lowest rating) had achievement test scores in the low to mid range of the groups. The one candidate having a very high achievement test score, but rated as competent in trainee performance, voluntarily terminated employment and now is with a similar banking institution. One can only speculate on the reasons for leaving but, in terms of total number of candidates involved in the program, it would not seem unusual. A second anomaly was that one trainee had a relatively low achievement test score but was rated as superior competent. According to information from the file, the only attribute to explain this apparent discrepancy was that this person had been given the opportunity to relieve the account manager and had performed well with perhaps an associated halo effect.

Thus, there was a general strong correspondence between trainee on-the-job performance and achievement test scores achieved in the educational program. Given the apparent validity of the achievement test results for predicting performance and the strong measurement properties of the test scores in contrast to the small number of categories for performance appraisal, the achievement test scores were used to assess the self-report ratings provided by each candidate.

The methodology outlined in the paper describes how educators may assess the characteristics of their measurement instruments and then use results in a data analysis to assess the nature and magnitude of program effectiveness. Assessment of student growth in programs is a troublesome statistical area but solutions for describing program characteristics are required to document outcomes for accountability purposes. The report describes procedures initiated in one training institution and encourages more detailed analyses of instruments and analysis of data from studies by incorporating systematic data analytic procedures.

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Competency Perceptions of Doctoral Graduates of the Department of Adult and Community College Education, North Carolina State University--1968-1979

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INTRODUCTION

Extended life expectancy forecasts indicate that a recent product of the dominant educational system may expect 45 to 50 years in a productive role. This educational preparation is supposed to permit the recipient to function successfully in his chosen career or profession throughout his working life. To expect the educational experiences of today's baccalaureate or post-baccalaureate graduate to suffice for professional practice in the year 2030 is at best ludicrous.

A profession may be defined as a calling that requires specialized knowledge and often long and intensive academic preparation. Society exists in an environment characterized by rapid change and complexity. These rapid advancements, coupled with changes in educational, economic, managerial, social, and political institutions have made it increasingly difficult for today's professionals to keep abreast of developments that affect their role performance. The skills, knowledge, and competencies acquired today will not enable the professional to operate effectively and efficiently in the professional field of tomorrow. What then is a suitable strategy to ward off obsolescense and permit the professional to serve effectively in his professional role for the rest of his working career?

Knowledge obsolescence is a normal process that is amenable to updating efforts. A trained person must constantly renew his knowledge, and a decline in competency is inexcusable for the true professional of today. Educators feel the need for improved techniques to assess the type and extent of knowledge obsolescence that exists so that continuing education programs may be tailored to facilitate the updating of knowledge among skilled professionals.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to identify the difference between perceived actual and needed competency levels of a selected group of practitioners in the field of adult education, i.e., all graduates of the doctoral program of Adult and Community College Education at North Carolina State University at Raleigh.

Specific purposes of the study were to:
1. Define and classify the areas of knowledge that represent competence in the field of adult education, i.e., specify the content domain.
2. Develop a content-based research instrument for the domain.

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3. Administer the instrument to all graduates of the adult and community college education doctoral program.
4. Determine the relationship between the measured differences and their job title, their organization, time in present position, and their degree date.

DEFINITIONS

The following definitions apply throughout the study:

Competency: sufficient skill or knowledge to perform a particular task.

Obsolescence: reduction of efficiency or performance over time resulting from a lack of knowledge of new techniques and technologies that have been developed since formal education was completed.

Perception: subjective interpretation of events or to become aware of some phenomenon through the senses.

Programming: a complex and all-pervasive concept that is used to explain and describe individual and collective efforts of professional staff members and volunteer lay leaders in planning, executing, and evaluating educational programs.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in five phases: (1) identification and validation of the content domain of adult education, (2) development of a data collection instrument, (3) collection of data, (4) analysis of data, and (5) draw conslusions, identify implications and develop recommendations.

Identification and Validation of Content Domain

Review of Literature

A comprehensive review of the available resources in adult education was conducted. The basic concerns of the study were related to a number of concepts, theories, and principles incorporated in the behavioral sciences. Loomis' Processually Articulated Structural Model identified a number of social system elements that play a key role in the perception of adult educators. Foremost among those elements were Belief, Sentiment, Objectives, Norms, Rank, Power and Sanction.

As the title states, this study was based upon the perceptions of the target audience. If adult educators are interested in the behavior of people, they must be concerned with people's subjective interpretation of events--their perceptions. Behavior is based upon these perceptions, and what people think subjectively determines their actions and attitudes. This concept of perception based on Thorndike's (1977) writings, was used extensively in this study, that is:

> No one else has as intimate and continuous view of Johnny as Johnny himself. He is aware of hopes and aspirations, worries, and concerns that may well be hidden from the outsider.

Likewise, no one else has as intimate and continuous view of the adult educator as the adult educator himself.

The macro process of programming as developed by Boone and his co-workers (1971) provided guides to determining the difference between adult educator's perceived actual level of competence in identified role areas and what they feel their level of competence should be. The institution and its renewal processes, needs assessment, program design and implementation, and program evaluation and accountability were micro processes of programming that undergirded the study.

Rosalind Loring (1977), former president of the AEA/USA, summarized the thoughts that were pervasive throughout the literature search:

> It is crucial that we all as adults and continuing educators find ways to make the quantum growth of knowledge accessible and usable to our clientele. We cannot perform that task unless we ourselves are keeping pace--or even staying a little bit ahead.

This then, is the challenge to adult educators to bring to bear all the forces and elements of their domain to serve themselves and their clientele.

The Content Domain and Competency Area Items

Subject-matter experts--adult educators and practitioners at North Carolina State University--were a valuable resource in the development of core competency area items and the delineation of the content domain. Under the primary direction of Malcolm Knowles, a departmental faculty member, a "Core Competency Diagnostic and Planning Guide" had been developed. This guide was used as a base for the study since the core competency areas had been identified by Knox and Fearing, as well as Boone and his co-workers (1971), as indicated earlier in their programming schema. Thus, the core competency areas to be studied pertained to the adult educator (1) as a professional, (2) as a learning facilitator, (3) as a program developer, (4) as an administrator, (5) as a researcher and consumer of research findings, and (6) as a consultant.

As a professional, the practitioner of adult education was assumed to be knowledgeable about characteristics of adult education as a social movement and a professional field, their roles in society, the scope and structure of the field of practice and the technology of the field.

As a learning facilitator, the adult educator should have knowledge and understanding of the conceptual and theoretical framework of the adult learning process and the design and implementation of plans and programs for evaluating adult learning experiences and change.

As a program developer, the adult educator should possess skills in the planning process, the design and implementation of programs, and the program evaluation and accountability process.

As an administrator, the adult educator should possess skills, values, and concepts concerning organizational development and maintenance program administration, personnel administration, and various other fiscal and administrative tasks.

As a researcher and a consumer of research, the adult educator should possess functional knowledge of research methods and skills in the design of research and the criteria for evaluating and utilizing appropriate research findings.

Finally, as a consultant, the adult educator should possess skills as required to respond to requests for advice or service in his chosen field. The adult educator must be able to guide his clientele in problem definition, data collection, alternative decision-making and evaluative techniques, while at the same time maintaining a helping relationship.

Instrument Development

The second phase of the study consisted of the development of a data collection instrument. This was followed by pretesting, refinement and ascertaining validity.

The previously mentioned "Core Competency Diagnostic and Planning Guide" was converted into a questionnaire of personal competency inventory. The competency inventory contained the identified six core competency areas and 99 related micro elements.

Part I of the instrument contained several questions or statements designed to elicit information from the respondents about selected personal and situational characteristics. Part II was the competency inventory which consisted of 99 micro elements. The respondents were to respond to each of the 99 micro elements on two 7-point Likert type summated rating scales that ranged from zero to six. One scale was annotated for "present" competency and the companion scale was annotated for "needed" competency. The values assigned to each of the continum scales were: zero = "absent", 3 = "moderate" (conceptual understanding) and 6 = "high" (expert).

The instrument was pretested by six faculty and staff members of the Department of Adult and Community College Education and six graduates of its program. Content validity was established on the basis of the content evaluation conducted by Advisory Committee members, faculty members in the Department, and other adult education experts, all of whom indicated that all items on the instrument were appropriate for the purposes of the study. The 99 items on the inventory were randomized to preclude any "halo" effect.

Data Collection

The survey instrument, along with a cover letter and self-addressed envelope were mailed to the 233 adult education graduates. The cover letter introduced the researcher, explained the purposes of the study and assured the anonymity of their responses. By the established cutoff date (four weeks from mailing) 163 of the 233 potential respondents had returned usable questionnaires for a 70 percent rate of return.

Analysis of Data

The Study Variables

The dependent variable of the study was adult practitioners' perception of their present and needed competency levels as related to six core competency areas of adult education. It was felt that the difference between the two levels of perceived competency would reveal areas in which renewal was needed to prevent obsolescence.

Four independent variables were identified for use in the study. Some of the most important knowledge to be gained from survey research can be found in the relationships between the patterns of response and certain background characteristics of the respondents. The independent variables selected as having the highest degree of relevance were: (1) job, (2) organization, (3) time in present position and (4) year the Doctor of Education degree was conferred. To permit the construction of a profile of a "typical" respondent, additional information was gathered concerning age and content area and year of the bachelor's and master's degree. Information was also collected on means utilized to keep current in the field of adult education.

Research Hypothesis

The stated purposes and objectives and the conceptual frame of reference led to the formulation of research hypothesis to guide the study of perceived actual and needed competencies of practicing adult educators.

> Hypothesis I: The total mean scores on the perceived present competency level will be significantly lower than the total mean scores on the perceived needed competency level for the following core competency areas: (a) as a professional adult educator, (b) as a learning facilitator, (c) as a program developer, (d) as an administrator, (e) as a researcher and consumer of research findings, and (f) as a consultant.
>
> Hypothesis II: The difference between doctoral program graduates' mean scores for perceived present and needed competency levels on the six core competency areas will be significantly related to their personal and situational characteristics of (a) job title, (b) organization, (c) time in present position and (d) year the Doctor of Education degree was conferred.

Summary of the Findings

The study population included 163 professional adult educators who had recieved the Doctor of Education degree from the Department of Adult and Community College Education at North Carolina State University. The "typical" respondent was 45 years of age and had been in an administrative position with a university, college, or technical institute for over five years. He had held the Doctor of Education degree for seven years.

The data clearly showed a disparity or "gap" between present levels and needed levels. These gaps all indicated that the present competency levels were perceived to be less than the perceived needed levels. For purposes of this analysis, the micro elements that showed a mean difference or gap of twice the total mean difference for all computed micro elements were identified as the most critical. Twenty-two of the micro competencies, representing each of the six core competency areas, fit this specification.

Hypothesis I predicted that the total mean scores for perceived present competency levels would be significantly less than those of perceived needed competency levels in the six core competency areas. The data and findings supported hypothesis I in all six core competency areas.

Hypothesis IIa was supported in that administrators displayed a significant difference from other adult educators in all core competency areas. Hypothesis IIb was supported in the core competency areas of professional adult educator, learning facilitator, and program developer. Hypothesis IIb was rejected for the core areas of administration, researcher and consumer of research findings and consultant. Hypothesis IIc was supported by the study in that all respondents in their present position seven or more years demonstrated a sizeable gap in all core competency areas when compared with those in the position for six years or less. Hypothesis IId was supported by the study in that all respondents who received their degree in 1974 or earlier demonstrated a significant gap between present and needed competency levels when compared with those who received the degree in 1975 or later.

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

Conclusions

Observations of the respondents' perceived present and needed competency levels revealed a gap in all six core competency areas of adult education. As a group, the respondents' perceived present and needed competency levels revealed that the largest gap existed in the program developer and administrator areas; as a researcher and consumer of research findings, learning facilitator, and professional adult educator at the mid-range. The smallest gap was in the consultant area.

In general for the independent variables, the gap was largest for (1) administrators, (2) those respondents who received their EdD degree prior to 1974, (3) those who had been in their present position more than seven years, and (4) those who were employed in a formal academic environment. Recent graduates were found to be more adequately prepared to deal with current knowledge in their field.

Implications

Adult educators who participated in this study have provided a heretofore nonexistent practitioners' data base upon which the curriculum for adult educators at NCSU could be evaluated. These respondents have provided first-hand knowledge about their own perceived present and needed competency levels in selected core areas of adult education as they apply to the requirements of their current jobs. Implications from these self-analyses should weigh heavily in the evaluation of the present doctoral program curriculum. Who knows better the needs of the adult education practitioner than the practitioner himself?

Recommendations

1. North Carolina State University should give careful consideration to the establishment of a continuing education program to update the graduates of it's doctoral program in adult and community college education.

2. The core curriculum of the doctoral program of the Department of Adult and Community College Education should be analyzed objectively in light of the findings of this study.

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Aims and Instructional Variables as Interactive Predictors of Adult Education Methods: A Conceptual Analysis

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INTRODUCTION

Verner's (1962) Conceptual Scheme distinguished methods from techniques and devices and is still a powerful though largely misunderstood classification of adult education processes which are often thought to proceed in stages. First, methods are selected. This is part of the program planning process. Next, the instruction is designed. The final step is instructional management.

The purpose of this project was to examine the influence of adult education "aims" and instructional variables on the selection of methods. Verner assumed that the selection of a method was primarily determined by the social and cultural characteristics of learners. Verner, like Knowles and McClusky, was one of the founding fathers in the Commission of Professors of Adult Education. The first version of his coneptual scheme (Verner, 1962) was written for the Commission at the time when there was general agreement concerning the aims of adult education (see Hallenbeck, 1960). Largely because of changes in the age structure of the population and rapid technological "development" the scope of adult education has now broadened. Despite the temporary hiatus induced by economic recession and social malaise, in many parts of the world adult education has moved from a marginal position on the fringes of the educational establishment to one of centrality. Many influential leaders see adult education as an essential concomitant of socio-cultural and economic development. Verner (1975) maintained the selection of individual, group, and community methods is primarily determined by the social and cultural characteristics of participants while the nature of the educational goals of the agency play a secondary role. This classification is still viable but the notion that the social and cultural characteristics of participants is the prime determinant of method is challenged.

The purpose of this project was to explain how contemporary methods are influenced by the aims of adult education and variables related to the design and management of instruction. Boshier (1978) showed that the aims (he called them functions) of adult education shape the character of both the program planning and instructional process. But in this paper aims are not treated as a unitary phenomenon but classified into four types in a manner congruent with the theorising of Mitchell and Spady (1978).

Authors of The 1919 Report wanted to use adult education to divert the populace from the perils of the machine age. In Canada, Coady (1938) used adult education to empower fishermen and coal miners victimized by New York fish dealers and coal merchants. Throughout the recent history of adult education writers such as Lindeman (1926), Mansbridge (1908), Hallenbeck (1960), Darkenwald & Merriam (1982) speculated about the aims of adult education. Earlier writers appeared preoccupied with the voluntary, democratic and largely part-time nature of the field and, in some cases, excluded technical education from under the rubric of adult education. Proponents of lifelong education (e.g. Dave) have worked hard to erode barriers between vocational and non-vocational education. With the broadening of adult education there is a need for a comprehensive classification of aims. This appears to be provided by Mitchell & Spady (1978) who distinguish education for personal development from that designed to foster social integration, social responsibility and technical competence. This study was designed to examine the extent to which each of these "aims" influenced objective setting processes, agent-learner transactions, the assessment of learning and, ultimately the method. Although this is conceptually-based research of an inductive nature it is easily understood if compared to a two way analysis of variance where methods is the dependent variable and aims and instructional components are independent. By nesting methods within aims it is possible to show the extent to which each method (individual, group, community) and variations are theoretically the most desirable. At a time when there is an increasing interest in the philosophical foundations of the field, the analysis relies more heavily on the aims of adult education than previous attempts to facilitate understanding of methods. By emphasizing aims, earlier work in the area of method is integrated into a broader conceptual framework which can be used to plan programs and conduct research on the nature of adult education enterprises.

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Table 1 shows variables in the analysis. The aims (e.g. personal development) are shown at the top of the table; in the three cells immediately below are instructional design and management variables. It is the combined effect of the four "aim" variables that determine the extent to which the educator will select an individual, group or community method. The bar graphs show the extent to which the methods are suited to the respective aims. Thus, for personal development based education it is probable that the educator will select a group method. Individual methods could "possibly" be selected but would be less desirable than a group method.

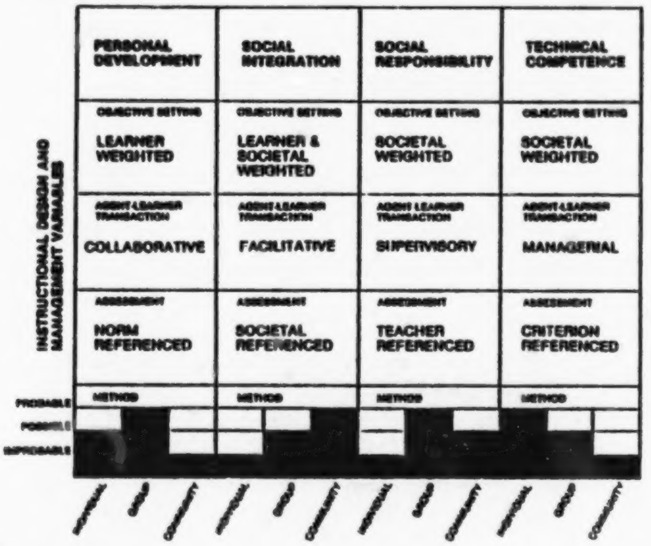

Fig. 1

DEPENDENT VARIABLE

In the absence of any direct empirical manifestation of the relationship between methods, aims, and instructional variables, method is the dependent variable in this analysis.

Method

Speaking about fundamental concepts in adult education, Verner (1975) defined adult education as any planned and organized activity provided by an individual, institution, or other social instrumentality intended to assist an adult to learn and which is under the immediate supervision of an instructional agent who manages the conditions for learning in such a way as to facilitate the successful achievement of the learning objectives. The organization of the potential participants is the method of education. Learners can be organized around the sponsor on a one-to-one basis by individual methods such as corre-

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spondence study, directed individual study, apprenticeship, internship and individualized mediated instruction. A number of learners can be organized to participate simultaneously by collecting otherwise isolated individuals at a specific time and place. Group methods include the class, discussion group, workshop, symposium, seminar, institute and such like. Participants can also be organized around common problems encountered by a community. Here the nature of the category of method rests on the introduction of change and the alteration of attitudes within the social system; changes in individuals and subsystems are presumed to result from changes in the system of which they are a part. Learning objectives are derived from the social system so that learning occurs in a more realistic setting. Verner viewed the selection of method as being primarily influenced by the social and cultural characteristics of the intended participants and only secondarily by institutional and instructional considerations; the view proposed here is that the primary factor is the aim of a given adult education program and the design and management of instructional variables associated with the particular aim.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE I - AIMS

"Aims" of adult education programs and their related design and management of instruction characteristics are the independent variables in this analysis. Educational programs are invariably guided by a set of societal expectations that, according to Mitchell & Spady, (1978) are to: (1) Encourage and enhance the fullest possible development of physical, emotional, or intellectual capacities and dispositions. Programs of this nature use a development-based approach, (2) Generate and support social integration among individuals across cultural groups and within institutions. These expectations call for a social integration-based approach, (3) Nurture and guide participants' sense of social responsibility for the consequences of their behaviour and for the character and quality of the groups to which particiants belong. These expectations call for a social responsibility-based approach, (4) Facilitate and certify the achievement of technical competence. These expectations require a competency-based approach.

Programs Aimed at "Personal Development"

The dominant aim in this approach is to expand the participants' ability to experience and encounter themselves and their environment. Expected outcomes concern physical, intellectual, and emotional growth; "levels" of achievement are rarely stated. Participants pursue each goal to the limits of their ability and curiosity. Time, money and instructor expertise limit the educational experience but within a broad context, learners are free to choose specific areas of study and the depth to which they wish to pursue their studies. Individual growth and excellence are encouraged with learning as the main concern. Rather than accepting a social identity, learners use the educational experience to create a personal identity with experimentation replacing routinization.

Group methods are most suitable for personal development. Group interaction provides the milieu for emotional growth through involvement with others, while the face-to-face relationship with the instructor promotes the collaborative dimension thought to be vital for personal development. Learners in a group make possible the use of norm-referenced testing as a means of providing information to learners for purposes of establishing learning contracts as well as assessing their achievement.

Programs Aimed at "Social Integration"

The focus of this approach is to foster cultural pluralism through the creation of a significant basis for interaction and involvement for learners in the larger social milieu. The central aim is acculturation, that is the appreciation of various institutions in society. For instance, within an institution such as sports there are certain roles such as player, referee, and coach. By acquiring significant learning experiences in the context of these various social roles, participants associate their own growth with effective role performance. Social integration program goals are elements for facilitating the engagement of the individual with others.

Community methods are most appropriate for the social integration aim. The community provides the heterogeneous composition of social statuses, ethinic bases, and cultural variety necessary for developing an identity based on committment to a pluralistic society and culture.

Programs Aimed at "Social Responsibility"

The central concern of this type of aim is to move participants from a mere compliance with rules, norms and pressures to an internalization and actual embracing of the values and norms that underlie day-to-day social interaction. The prominent goal is loyalty and respect for society along with appropriate conduct with respect to its' standards. The learning outcomes receiving major emphasis are attitudinal in nature. They are exemplified by choice of reputable associates and willingness to follow formal directions.

Group methods of organization provide the face-to-face interaction with the instructor that allows the establishment of significant other relationships necessary for the modelling process vital to the social responsibility aim. They also provide a controlled social setting in which learners can be encouraged to seek out associates who aspire to social statuses and conform to dominant values. The qualities of formal groups enable the instructor to create and capitalize upon social instances with leverage not available in either individual or community methods.

Programs Aimed at "Technical Competence"

The aim of programs of this type is to facilitate and certify the achievement of the technical competence. In competency-based programs the demand for competence is dominant; operations are organized around learner attainment of explicit objectives. Expected outcomes are analyzed at varying levels of specificity and range from global to highly discrete skills. This allows agencies to set standards for performance and help individuals become productive members of society. Rather than having students satisfy time-based course requirements reflected in the standards of individual instructors, or norms, or course completion, "standardized" performance levels are presented in advance to participants. Of course, the desired outcomes have social and economic utility.

Individual methods are ideal for competency-based programs as they provide for time and spacefree instruction congruent with a program emphasis on objective certification of explicity documented outcomes. In the other three approaches, group process and community involvement were utilized to build relationships with significant others to facilitate the acquisition of affective as well as cognitive and motor skills; in contrast, competency-based programs stress the individual's freedom to pursue technical outcomes in the most efficient manner.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE II - INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN AND MANAGEMENT

The degree to which participants are involved in setting learning objectives, the role relationships between learner and instructor, and learning assessment procedures are shaped by the aims being sought.

Objective Setting

For personal development based aims, participants should determine the learning objectives. In contrast where social integration aims are sought societal influence is equally strong. In the social responsibility situation societal influence represents the strongest influence as is the case with competency-based aims.

Agent-Learner Transaction

Where personal development is the aim, the main impulse for the program arises from the learner's quest for personal adventure. In the intellectual area, the emphasis is upon individual excellence rather than prescribed standards, while in the affective area, emphasis is placed on genuine encounters with significant others. The instructor's role is that of a collaborator. Learners are encouraged to pursue interesting aspects of the subject matter with the instructor aiding and supporting the learner. The instructor collaborates with learners as they pursue physical, emotional and intellectual growth.

Where social interaction aims are desired, a learners' place in the group is the motivational basis for the agent-learner transaction. Individuals "engage" with others to establish their identity. In contrast to the collaborator role, instructors expend energy facilitating group dynamics to make possible the social interaction necessary for identity development. Rather than choosing an aspect of a subject matter the learner is often required to join heterogeneous groups to achieve an "identity" based on mutual respect. The ability to view things from more than one perspective is subtly encouraged.

Supervision is the main activity of the instructor in a program guided by social responsibility aims. The instructor models socially acceptable behaviour and monitors student behaviour to ensure compliance with social norms. Instruction shifts from the development of abilities to the evoking of proper conduct. Instruction focuses on prescribed rules and procedures. Learners are encouraged to base their personal integrity on the maintenance of social institutions through association with other participants who do the same. The instructor's job is to link the individual participant to the dominant values of the social institution. Motivation is based on the achievement of social status. Upward social mobility through the fulfillment of societal obligations is portrayed as the admirable path. Participants are encouraged to strive for social positions through the provision of rolemodels, not the least important of which is the instructor.

In competency-based programs it is the opportunity to attain economic and social goals that motivates learners. Job opportunities are frequently offered as inducements for learning. Better occupational and financial opportunities are the rewards for meeting certification standards. The instructor's role is managerial. The learner's role behaviour is focused on achievement of explicit outcomes with instruction often being selfpaced; participants have considerable leeway in study and other social behaviours. In keeping with the instructor's managerial role, learners achieve objectives in the most efficient manner and are not usually grouped. Participant relationships often move from spontaneous friendships to more calculating opportunistic associations based on their capability to facilitate outcome attainment.

Learning Assessment Procedures

For development based programs, assessment is done through norm-referenced tests which provide learners with an indication of how their performance compares to the "average". Where social integration aims are sought assessment is societal-referenced; personal knowledge and achievement levels are not the highest priority outcomes. Social contribution and quality of participation become the central focus. Assessment procedures involve the utilization of community based personnel. When social responsibility is the aim, the link between individual and the dominant social values of an institution is further reinforced through the "assessment" of membership rather than levels of performance. Respect for authority is enhanced by encouraging learners to accept the assessment of instructors who themselves model appropriate behaviour and are thus able to observe and monitor it in students. For competency-based programs certification is criterion-referenced. Learners are required to meet a specified standard for each capacity and are not judged in relation to their peer's performance.

HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIPS

Fig. 1 showed hypothesized relations between methods, aims and instructional variables as follows: Where "personal development" aims are sought, outcomes will be more readily attained through group methods; Where "social integration" aims are sought, outcomes will be more readily attained through community methods; Where "social responsibility" aims are sought, outcomes will be more readily attained through group methods; Where "technical competence" aims are sought, outcomes will be more readily attained through individual methods.

CONCLUSION

Many adult educators do not understand the difference between methods and techniques and, moreover, lapse into habitual patterns of behaviour. In many places the "class" is the dominant method. It is used year after year because of administrative fiat, inertia or habit. Several variables influence the selection of methods. The aims of the educational enterprise significantly influence methods. The relationship between aims and methods is moderated by variables concerned with the design and management of instruction. The analysis has heuristic value in that it could cause programmers to select methods congruent with the aims of their program. Institutions should not be unduly committed to one method. Indeed, it is likely that programs within an institution will have different aims and methods. The relationship between the aims and methods is not direct; rather it is moderated by instructional variables. Thus, when selecting a method, programmers should consider the nature of the agent-learner transaction and the assessment and objective setting procedures.

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Outlines of An Emerging Typology: The Psychosocial Development of Adult High School Non-Completers

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Alvin Toffler (1980) and others predict that this country is quickly succumbing to the impact of a "Third Wave" of change which has been initiated and enhanced by the knowledge explosion of the past century and actualized through the improved technology of the computer and related technologies. Dubbed the "Information Age" by various observers, the profound changes being ushered in suggest the development of an "Information Gap" between those segments of society who are likely to adjust and benefit, and those who are likely to suffer disenfranchisement. Predictable consequences suggest that those who lack literacy skills and educational certification will be further disenfranchised from the social mainstream and will not be able to keep pace with the rapid changes in the amount of knowledge required of productive citizens.

Among those persons trapped in this seemingly hopeless sea of change are persons who are adult high school non-completers (AHSN-Cs). These are individuals who failed as youths to complete high school and because of the credential inflation, which accompanies the knowledge explosion, are considered to be the least competent Americans (Hunter and Harmon, 1979). During relatively stable periods Kozol (1980) estimates that these individuals cost this country over thirteen billion dollars annually in welfare programs, lost productivity, and prison upkeep. A more recent report by Paul Simon (D-Ill.), Chairman of the House Higher Education Subcommittee, revealed equally gruesome statistics: 25 million Americans cannot read and write; 72 million are functionally illiterate, unable to read and write above the fifth-grade level; 47 percent of all black 17 year-olds are functionally illiterate and by 1990 that figure is estimated to rise to 50 percent; 60 percent of all inmates in correctional institutions are illiterate and it costs $6.6 billion a year to keep them in jail; 75 percent of all unemployed persons have inadequate reading and writing skills; those with less than six grades of education are four times more likely to end up on welfare than those with at least nine years of schooling (Brightman, 1983).

Two Groups of ABE/GED Learners

Exhibiting the first-stage characteristics of Toffler's (1980) prognostications, the recent severe economic recession and its attendant structural unemployment has increased the number and type of adult student likely to seek educational assistance through ABE/GED programs. The programs have traditionally facilitated the learning needs of adults who suffered disenfranchisement from the mainstream of society--the structural poor, irregularly employed and regularly unemployed adults, semi-skilled workers, jail and prison inmates, chemical and drug abusers, etc. These individuals are usually referred to as "marginal citizens" because of their presumed and often demonstrated inability to function in a highly literate and increasingly technological society. This group has been largely unresponsive to the programming initiatives of ABE/GED programs, which consistently enroll less than five percent of their target populations.

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With entire categories of jobs being displaced because of the technologically induced information age, structural unemployment is impelling unemployed workers to seriously consider for the first time enrolling in ABE/GED classes. These individuals usually come from a proud tradition of blue-collar employment, consistent work, and good wages. They bring to ABE/GED programs a history of autonomous decision-making, strong family and peer-group ties, and an urgency to become re-employable through the completion of academic certification. Facing unemployment and dependence on public subsidy, these individuals attempt to balance their need to learn with their emotional and financial need to become gainfully employed.

Monolithic Perspectives of ABE/GED Practitioners

The perception of indifference to subpopulations of ABE/GED students and potential students along criteria other than those derived from academic sources is clearly evident in the processes used to target such populations for educational services. The most salient built-in characteristics are those concerned with the diagnosed level of reading and academic deficiencies. The National Center for Educational Statistics sets the pace by categorizing three groups of participants (NCES, 1981). These categories account for the treatment received by the students once they enter the program. Invariably each student is subjected to the same routine. After completing the "in-processing" they are tested to diagnose a suitable academic placement and if the center has sufficient resources in the form of space, staff, and materials, they are provided three learning options: pursue learning through individualized efforts by studying a programmed text; attend a class lecture with minimum group interaction; or, attend a learning center and experience numerous mechanized learning devices.

The flexible structure of the learning environments to which adult high school non-completers (AHSN-Cs) are exposed assumes that all such adults are able to pursue learning in an independent manner. This assumption suggests that the experiences encountered while developing into adults were positive and resulted in an ability of each learner to primarily plan and implement their own learning projects.

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

By exploring the adult developmental patterns experienced by American born AHSN-Cs, this study challenged the assumption that all AHSN-Cs are representative of the same monolithic construct and therefore should be subjected to identical programming efforts. The study took fifteen months to complete and entailed conducting 79 two- to three-hour, tape-recorded, biographical interviews with a diverse group of subjects. The research format followed the methodology suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The data were collected from persons living in three U.S. locations: a large Mid-western metropolis of over six million people; a mid-sized Southeastern city of 160,000 people, and several rural Southeastern communities of less than 5,000 persons. The interviewees were recruited from many diverse settings including ABE/GED programs, social service agencies, employment settings, street corners, and homes. Each interviewee was asked to address a series of questions designed to obtain information on their life experiences regarding their: childhood, schooling, adolescence, young adulthood, family background, current family, employment history, life crises, and others. The interviewee was encouraged to discuss in-depth any experience(s) considered important to their personal development.

The Sample

The sample represents a diverse group of people whose only shared characteristics are that they were born in America and did not complete high school. Of those interviewed, 33 percent were white, 65 percent were black, and two percent were hispanic. The majority (57%) were women compared to (43%) men. A total of 73 percent were currently enrolled in ABE/GED programs, while 27 percent were not attending a program. The majority of them (42%) lived in a large city, 34% lived in a mid-sized city, and 24% lived in a rural community. Their ages ranged from 17 to 72 with an average age of 33.

EMERGING THEMES: OUTLINES OF A TYPOLOGY

The data collected in this study produced a mass of biographical information regarding how adults who did not complete high school perceive their individual adult developmental patterns. This mass of information has been ingested by the author through: interactions with the subjects while conducting personal interviews; observing subjects in learning, community, and home environments; listening to tape-recorded interviews; and decoding information from the interviews for systematic analysis. The analysis of data suggested several emerging themes that appeared to have major influences on the adult developmental patterns experienced by AHSN-Cs.

Emerging Themes

Although the sample of AHSN-Cs in this study represented vastly different backgrounds, experienced a range of problems and opportunities, and succeeded and failed to varying degrees, there were several underlying themes in the literature that suggested a commonality among them. These themes tended to center around several multidisciplinary concerns: deviancy, self-esteem, setting and achieving goals, and literacy and social awareness.

Deviance. In its simplest view deviance is defined statistically as any behavior that varies too far from a socially accepted norm. A much more common view identifies it as something essentially pathological, revealing the presence of a "disease." Sociologists view as deviant those processes in society that tend to reduce its stability, thus lessening its chance of survival. They label such processes deviant and identify them as symptoms of social disorganization (H. Becker, 1973). Schur (1979) suggests that a primary requisite to acquiring deviantness is that one's behavior or condition will have been viewed and treated in certain deviantizing ways. In this way, all the deviantness is "caused by" or "produced through" the process of definition and reaction, i.e., enforcing rules.

Self-Esteem. The problem of self-esteem is an organismic one that is intricately related to the make-up of the human being. "All our meanings are built into us from the outside, from our dealings with others. This is what gives us a 'self' and a superego. Our whole world of right and wrong, good and bad, our name, precisely who we are, is grafted into us" (E. Becker, p. 48, 1973). Arguing that self-esteem takes root in the elemental physical experience of the infant, Becker (1973) suggests three basic ways human beings acquire self-esteem: (1) from the power of the other--from the mother when she is a dependable support and does not interfere too much with the child's own activity and from a strong father with whom the child can identify; (2) from the secure possession of one's own body as a safe locus under one's control; and (3) the cultural, causa sui project--society's symbols and dramatizations of our transcendence of animal vulnerability.

Setting and Achieving Goals. A goal is an expressed desire on the part of an individual and varies from those that are immediate to those that are long-term. Markel, et al., (1977) identified several aspects of goal-setting that are usually performed in a taken-for-granted way by high achievers, but were essentially unknown to low-achievers: (a) competition with a standard of excellence; (b) concreteness; (c) moderate difficulty; (d) internally established; (e) time limit; (f) both immediate and long-range. After setting goals, high-achievers follow several steps to achieve them: planning steps, overcoming external blocks, finding helpful people, and anticipating future rewards (pp. 13-19).

Literacy and Social Awareness. Adults differ in their attainment of literacy skills and in their ability to critically analyze their social environment. Kreitlow (1970) suggests "Adult learning generally involves cognitive restructuring or reorganization...Adults show consistent differences in their capacity to direct attention selectively when confronted with complex stimulus fields" (p. 2). Different levels of literacy affect the ability of adults to think analytically, to study, and to analyze themselves. Ong (1982) asserts that abstractly sequential, classificatory, explanatory examination of phenomena or of stated truths is impossible without writing and reading. Illiterates learn by apprenticeship, listening, repeating what they hear, assimilating other formulatory materials, and participating in a kind of corporate retrospection.

The Typology

The data suggest that the life experiences of AHSN-Cs can be classified into four mutually exclusive, yet fluid, groups categorized in accordance with the manner in which they were able to cope succesfully with the aforementioned underlying themes. These groups are the: Entrepreneurs, Regulars, Marginals, and Under Class.

The Entrepreneurs. As owners of private businesses and as high-salaried employees, these individuals were the most financially successful of the persons interviewed, satisfied with the development of their life patterns, and optimistic about their futures. The concept of deviance was not a central concern to their day-to-day activities, but tended to be situational in nature; especially when they considered employment options or in the presence of highly educated persons. They tended to successfully avoid being labeled deviant by the larger society, did not associate with deviant groups, and were fully committed to the values of society.

The entrepreneurs tended to possess the highest levels of self-esteem; referring often to their many successes in life, exhibiting a firm control of the language, and appearing satisfied with their material possessions. They often exhibited a good sense of the direction they wanted their lives to take and how they would pursue their goals. Indicating that literacy and learning was a central aspect of their lives, they often described themselves as voracious readers, and relied on their literacy skills to decipher and to understand their environment.

The Regulars. This group tended to be regularly employed blue-collar workers and often enjoyed consistent employment at good wages. They are characterized by their commitment to the social structure of the larger society, although they must occasionally weather bouts with periodic unemployment. To a large extent they avoid being successfully labeled as deviant, but occasionally interact with those individuals who have been successfully deviantized by the larger society. They have a moderately strong sense of self-esteem that tends to be centered primarily upon their ability to earn a wage.

For the regulars, goal-setting and attainment is not a clearly articulated process. Goals are often the subject of their thought and actions but tend to lack several of the elements noted among high achievers, and their goal achievement efforts are largely sporadic and inconsistent. Their literacy skills tend to be sufficient to allow them to experience growth to its fullest potential.

The Marginals. This group, epitomized by the welfare parent, lives on the fringes of the mainstream social system. Because they are often unemployed, they are characterized by their low social-economic status, yet, they are sincere about their futile attempts to become employed and are committed to the values of the larger social system. Their struggle for basic survival needs necessitate that their commitment to mainstream social values be weighted by the extent to which they can see real and immediate personal benefit.

The marginals often associate with and are frequently labeled as being social deviants. Their association with deviant groups, e.g., criminals, committed welfare recipients, drug addicts, etc., provide for them a different perspective of social reality and leaves them in a state of ambivalence in terms of their societal commitment. They have no firm basis from which to either generate or to maintain a sense of self-esteem in the mainstream society and consequently builds it from occasional acts of deviance. They seldom express a strong commitment to the achievement of personal goals and are often frustrated when failure results from their unplanned attempts to achieve unarticulated goals. They have low levels of literacy skills and correspondingly low levels of understanding and awareness of themselves, their lives, and their social environment.

The Under Class. Members of the under class have completely rejected the societal causa sui project and developed a commitment to an alternative system of beliefs and values that often contradict and counteract those of the larger society. Members of the under class may seek support from the larger society, but work actively to sustain themselves through deviant and often illegal means. They are committed to an invisible means of support and earn their self-esteem by getting away with more and more profitable robberies, taking more and better drugs, acquiring fatter welfare checks, and having a larger family of welfare-related childbirths.

The goal-setting and achievement oriented behaviors of members of the under class range from the low's experienced by the "marginals" to the effective methods utilized by the "entrepreneurs": the primary difference being the societal focus of the goal-directed activity. Their literacy skills are often flawed, but can be quite comprehensive for some individuals. Most of them have a blurred view of their social environment, but a select few have an operational view of their social reality that allows them to function effectively and pursue their alternative causa sui projects.

IMPLICATIONS

The aforementioned typology has implications for practitioners interested in understanding the focus of current ABE/GED programs and altering them to serve the learning needs of a broader cross-section of the client population. The focus of the programs on independent learning methodologies, and techniques and devices utilizing print tend to produce a favorable learning environment for the entrepreneurs and regulars. Being more or less fully committed to the values of the dominant social structure and having the ability to avoid deviantizing labels these individuals experience fewer problems with deviance. They often possess moderate to high levels of self-esteem, frequently employ their literacy skills as a means to resolve life problems, and rely on goal-setting and achievement processes to accomplish their desires. Therefore, these individuals tend to be the most likely of the targeted client population to enroll in and to complete the ABE/GED programs.

The marginals and members of the underclass often experience multiple problems with the entire range of the aforementioned trends that mitigate against their enrolling in or completing educational programs. Their inability to thwart deviantizing labels and their lack of commitment to the social structure produce in them intrapsychic reactions which constrict their efforts to engage in constructive interpersonal relationships with authoritative figures of the dominant social structure, and equally constricts their efforts to learn from these individuals. Their low levels of self-esteem and meager literacy skills often condense their perspective of social reality and interferes with their ability to pursue learning through print. Many individuals in these groups are primarily oral and find learning through individualized instruction and print to be the antithesis of their learning styles.

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EPISTEMOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS

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These remarks selectively interpret and elaborate upon the ideas of Jurgen Habermas and other contemporary critical social theorists. In providing an expanded conception of rationity, Habermas' theory of communicative competence affords a point of departure for understanding the mission of adult education.[1]

The essence of adult education is the facilitation of adult learning. We learn in order to understand the meaning of our experience. Most learning means making explicit; elaborating and validating through dialogue some feature of our engagement with the world which we have not previously spelled out. Central to learning is our effort to understand what is valid in the assertions made by others and attempting to achieve acceptance for the validity of our own assertions. Assertions are speech acts which may be properly assessed as true or false or correct or incorrect. Validity is implied in our obligation to provide grounds for our predictions, denials, reporting, explaining or contesting. Validity is also implied in our obligation to justify commands, excuses, requests and recommendations.

We establish validity through dialogue differently from the way truth is established through empirical methods of traditional scientific inquiry. In the former, assertions are seldom amenable to "objective" verification. This is especially the case when assertions pertain to understanding what someone else means; the "why" of things; ideals,

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values, feelings, moral issues; abstract social, political or educational ideas; literature, law, self knowledge—in short, almost everything of consequence to adults. Because we lack perfect knowledge and insight, the validity of consensual judgments formed through dialogue is always provisional. Alvin Gouldner sees this consensus as a mediation in a continuing dialogue rather than being in the nature of a jury verdict.

For the most part, we take the validity of assertions for granted. When the validity of an idea is seen as hypothetical and is explicitly addressed as problematic, we become involved in a special form of dialogue which Habermas refers to as "discourse." In discourse, we suspend our judgment about the value of an idea and let the weight of evidence and the better argument establish or negate its validity. Ideally, the evidence and arguments in support of the validity of an assertion are such so that any rational, objective and informed judge would come to the same conclusion.

Habermas identifies four conditions which must pertain to assure the validity of consensual speech actions when a consensus is not already established: what is said must be comprehensible, its contents must be true, the speaker must be accepted as truthful or sincere and hence believable and what is said must be accepted as appropriate or "right" in the light of prevailing norms and values.[2] Either these four conditions are taken for granted or they must be established through discourse expressly directed toward achieving such mutual understanding. Otherwise, dialogue becomes impossible.

The nature of an ideal discourse is implied in the very nature of communication. The idealized conditions of discourse are crucial for adult education because they are at the same time the conditions of an ideal educational experience. Education may be understood as an effort to foster the ideal conditions of discourse.

Participants in an ideal discourse would have (1) accurate and complete information about the topic discussed, (2) ability to reason argumentatively about competing validity claims, (3) ability to be critically reflective about assumptions and premises and (4) self knowledge sufficient to assure that participation in dialogue is free of distorting inhibitions, compensatory mechanisms or other forms of self-deception. An idealized speech situation would be free of both internal and external forms of constraint or coercion, would provide for equality of opportunity to participate and for reciprocity in the roles assumed by participants in the discourse—to proffer interpretations and explanations; to challenge, refute, critique assumptions; to order and prohibit; to obey and refuse; to express intentions and attitudes and to speak with confidence. Arguments would be based upon the evidence and would not be distorted by deliberate tactics of debate or one-upsmanship. Consensus is based on the cogency of argument alone.

Participants in a discourse have a special obligation to critically assess assumptions and premises upon which the issue addressed has been predicated and defined. This frame of reference, or "meaning perspective," refers to that structure of cultural or psychological assumptions within which new experience is assimilated and transformed by one's past experience. These uncritically assimilated belief systems may involve cultural assumptions which are distorting—like racial or sexual stereotypes. Such distorting and dependency-producing ideologies may also be economic, religious, political, occupational, psychological, educational or technological.

A meaning perspective may be distorted through errors in assumptions about the nature and use of knowledge—involving reification or the arbitrary conversion of a description, like "life stages," into a normative prescription.

A meaning perspective may be distorted through errors in understanding about the function the perspective fulfills, as when a belief system impedes fuller participation in dialogue by stabilizing and legitimatizing domination and repression or masking social inequities and injustice.

Finally, a meaning perspective may be distorted through errors in understanding one's true motives for accepting it in the first place. A traumatized child may learn never to confront. To do so would involve an assumption of complete loss of control over his rage. The rule "never confront" fades from consciousness but continues to influence adult behavior through symptoms of anxiety which impede necessary confrontation. People engage in various forms of self-deception to make such behavior seem less discrepant with their idealized self-concept. Here the distorted assumption may be more a product of one's unique biography rather than of our collective cultural history, as in the case of a sex stereotypic belief system. As adults we can learn to critically examine and understand the reasons for the psycho-cultural assumptions which impede our ability to acquire meaning through unfettered participation in dialogue.

A meaning perspective may be considered more authentic when it facilitates fuller participation in the process of constructing meaning through dialogue. Thus a meaning perspective is more authentic when it is: (1) more informed by complete and accurate information; (2) more inclusive, discriminating and integrative of experience; (3) more free from the influence of internal or external forms of constraint or coercion; (4) more critically reflective—informed by a clearer understanding of the historical, cultural and biographical reasons for it having been acquired in the first place and of the functions it fulfills; and (5) more permeable—open to discourse with alternative perspectives on disputed validity claims. Because we seek to understand the meaning of our experience, we move toward more authentic perspectives when the culture and our circumstances permit.

Distorted meaning perspectives generate needs and interests which may be distorted as well. An alcoholic craves drink, an extermination camp commandant needs to learn more efficient methods, a bigot needs to learn new ways to feel superior, a chauvinist has an interest in keeping women in traditional social roles, a serf needs to learn servility to please his master, and an oligarch has an interest in opposing free elections. The oppressed need to internalize the value of their oppressor. A neurotic has an interest in finding new rationalizations to explain uncomfortable feelings. An education predicted upon a needs assessment or on helping learners meet their needs is confronted with a dilemma.

One's interests--like those of the alcoholic--may be distorted by physical, ideologic or psychic coercion or extreme deprivation from what they would be if the person were living under more advantageous circumstances. Authentic interests are those we would form if we had more perfect knowledge and freedom so that we could more fully participate in a more ideal discourse to ascertain the validity of alternative ideas. If a distorted or stunted meaning perspective involves unauthentic needs and interests which limit the possibilities of acquiring meaning through dialogue, it is easy to see how one becomes trapped by one's own history. The way out is through the changes in circumstance which produce significant transitions in life. It is not surprising that the most significant adult learning (and education) is associated with life transitions. Old ways of defining problems and solving them no longer work, and the stage is set for a perspective transformation through the critical assessment of psycho-cultural assumptions.[3]

The educator's function is to foster the closest approximation possible of the ideal conditions of discourse in creating a learning situation. A cardinal function is to help learners move toward more authentic meaning perspectives so that they may participate more fully in dialogic learning. As adult learners become aware of how they have uncritically internalized distorting ideologies, they will often also come to see how social institutions and practices legitimate and sustain these dependency-producing belief systems and will be motivated to take collective action to change them. When educators agree with these assessments, education for social action becomes a joint commitment which is entirely appropriate and necessary. Social institutions and practices which impede the full participation of every adult learner in construing the meaning of his or her experience through dialogue are thwarting the most basic human needs and should be modified to make them more responsive to these needs.

The ideal conditions of dialogue—far from being an empty intellectual abstraction—provide us with the firmest foundation for understanding the mission of adult education. The familiar goals of adult education—intellectual development, cognitive development, emancipation, democratic participation, self-actualization and social action are essentially instrumental in nature and have a common purpose: to foster the conditions and abilities necessary for an adult to make meaning of his or her experience through dialogue. And dialogue represents the most distinctively human attribute, man's capacity to develop meaning and to realize the value potential in nature through communication.

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The Intrapersonal Role Conflicts of Adult Women Undergraduate Students

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this descriptive study was to investigate the intrapersonal role conflicts experienced by adult women undergraduate students (24 years and older) as they met their responsibilities as students, parents, mates, home managers and/or workers. The load-power-margin model conceptualized by Howard Y. McClusky (1963; 1970; 1971; 1973) for studying the psychological development and adjustment of persons in the adult years was used in this investigation.

The term social position refers to a collectively recognized category of persons such as mate, parent, and worker. Role refers to the socially prescribed and the individually enacted behavior of persons occupying specific positions. It includes several components: social position and its accompanying demands, personal role definition, and behavior. Socialization, i.e., knowledge of the status structure of society and the role prescriptions and behaviors attached to the various statuses, is acquired through two simultaneously occuring processes: interactional processes and learning processes that involve different agents of socialization, including family, peers, and school (Hurley, 1978). Socialization is viewed as a reciprocal process in which the socializee and socializer are mutually influenced. Thus, the role occupant is active rather than passive in defining appropriate role behaviors for a specific position.

The term intrapersonal role conflict describes the difficulty an individual may have in conforming to the expected behavioral norms for a given role. In this study, it specifically refers to the conflict which occurs when an individual attempts to fulfill more than one role simultaneously and experiences difficulty in completing the multiple role tasks within given time limits.

Two key concepts comprising McClusky's model, the load the individual must carry in living and the power which is available to him/her for carrying the load, are defined as follows: (McClusky, 1963, pp. 15, 16)

> Load is divided into groups of interacting elements: external load consisting of tasks involved in the usual requirements of living such as those connected with family, work, civic obligations and the like; and internal load consisting of those life expectancies set by the individual for himself.
>
> Power consists of a combination of such interacting factors as physical, social, mental, and economic abilities together with acquired skills and the like which may contribute to the effective performance of life tasks.

McClusky's third concept, margin, is the reservoir of resources or energy that an individual possesses to meet the daily load requirements, as well as any life emergency. Margin, a function of the relationship of load to power, is surplus power available to a person over and beyond that required to handle load.

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In this study, load was conceptualized as the total number of daily living task requirements that adult women are expected to satisfactorily perform in their varied social positions (external load); and the personal life expectancies of the individual woman (internal load). Borrowing some concepts from role theory, the external load is the role expectation(s) associated with specific social positions; internal load reflects the individual woman's personal role definition; and lastly, the interaction between these two factors reflects the degree of intrapersonal conflict or absence of conflict. Power, in this study, was viewed as available resources to meet the daily load demands while margin was the surplus resources an individual possesses.

METHODOLOGY

Population and sample. By drawing a 16.8 percent probability sample using a single stage cluster sampling technique, 129 adult women students (mature, non-traditional or reentry students) attending eleven classes were surveyed during the Spring Semester of the 1982-1983 school year at Ursuline College, a Roman Catholic liberal arts college for women in Pepper Pike, Ohio. A brief explanation of the research project was presented to each class followed by a description of the required sample criteria for participation, i.e., women who were 24 years and older; had a mate (married or living with a member of the opposite sex); or be a single head of household with one or more dependents (children, parents, relatives, etc.).

Instrumentation. The 129 mature women students completed a questionnaire developed to measure their perceptions of the extent, if any, to which they were experiencing intrapersonal role conflicts as they met their student obligations along with the other adult responsibilities. The survey instrument had two sections requiring about thirty minutes to complete. First, there were 67 items on load/power covering varied areas of life which could impact on the student role of the adult women; and second, 24 questions concerning demographic, educational and employment information.

Fifty-nine of the 67 load/power items dealt with life situations that could potentially create intrapersonal role conflicts for adult women as they met their daily responsibilities as students, parents, mates, home managers and/or workers. The eight conflicts covered in the items are those identified by Nevill and Damico (1974): time management; relations with husband; household management; financial; child care; expectations for self; expectation of others; and guilt. The only departure from Nevill and Damico's conflicts was that relations with husband was changed to relations with mate and children. The remaining eight load/power items covered two other areas of potential conflict: health status of the respondent or her family, and attitudes that the respondent thought family members had toward her involvement in higher education.

The format used in the load/power section of the survey instrument and twenty-six of the sixty-seven items were obtained from Joanne Stevenson's (1982) Margin in Life Scale. Respondents were asked to rate each of the sixty-seven items as follows: 1) to check on a ten point scale the importance of the item in their life (1=low importance; 10=high importance; 2) to check on a five point scale the load and power of each item (1=lowest amount; 5=highest amount); and 3) to mark items having no relevance in their lives as not applicable. The respondents were instructed to view importance as the impact each item had on their lives. Also, load referred to the amount of effort, burden or responsibility each item required of them while power was the amount of resources, energy, strength or ability they had to cope with the situation described in each item. Some examples of the questionnaire items are: being a student is--; my obligation to my job is--; and my hearing is--.

FINDINGS

The findings are reported in four categories: personal information; perceived importance of load/power items; load/power ratio and subsequent margin for each item; and the relationship of the load/power ratios to selected personal variables.

Personal Information. Based on analysis and interpretation of the data, the adult women students in this study were typically 38 years old, married and white. Most of them had 1-2 grade school age children living at home. A majority of the respondents returned to college because they wanted a college education or to update their past education.

Most of the respondents were enrolled in school part-time and working full-time. The majority were Juniors and Seniors enrolled in one of several Bachelor of Arts programs. The two most frequent reasons given for enrolling in a specific program were to prepare for a future job and personal development. The mean grade point average these women students had achieved was 3.35. The mean years of education interruption was 12.8 while work interruption was 8.0.

A majority of these women indicated that their mate as head of their household worked in a professional or technical occupation, had achieved at least a college education, and earned over $30,000 annually.

Perceived Importance of Load/Power Items. The data showed that the respondents considered child care and relations with their mate and children as very important issues in their lives. Furthermore, situations regarding their children were more important than those dealing with their mates.

Also reflecting attention to family, these mature women students reported their attitude toward family was more important than school or job. However, doing household chores was not very important to them which could allow more time to balance family, work and school responsibilities.

Health status, particularly of family, had high importance for the respondents. Guilt, contrary to the findings of others, is not perceived as being a highly important concern by these women. Since most of the situations in this category focus on guilt rooted in meeting student responsibilities, these items may have had little relevance to this sample of predominantly part-time students.

Load/Power Ratio and Subsequent Margin for Each Item. While the load/power/margin formula as conceptualized by McClusky is relatively straight-forward, its application in analyzing the conflicts experienced by mature women students presented some challenges. His construct incorporates a load/power ratio (L/P) with load and power as numerator and denominator respectively. Margin is a function of the relationship between load and power. It refers to the surplus resources or energy that an individual has available over and beyond that required to handle his/her load. According to this framework, the performance and health of an individual can be viewed as the L/P ratio subtracted from his/her total capacity which can be established as 1.00 or 100 percent. Margin refers to the remaining resources, energy, or strength when the ratio is subtracted from 100 percent. To compute margin, the following is used:

$$\underset{(\text{or } 100\%)}{1.00} - \frac{\text{Load}}{\text{Power}} = \text{Margin}$$

An L/P ratio ranging between .50 to .80 indicates the individual possesses a margin of .50 to .20 respectively which is adequate to meet the daily demands of life as well as the emergencies. However, a ratio close to 1.00 over an extended period of time offers no margin and may be a threat to health. Borrowing from Main (1979), the following illustration might further clarify the formula for computing margin:

1.	$\frac{\text{High load}}{\text{Low Power}}$	= Negative Margin	Potential crisis Susceptible to breakdown
2.	$\frac{\text{High Load}}{\text{High Power}}$ or $\frac{\text{Low Load}}{\text{Low Power}}$	= Zero Margin	Barely maintaining balance Breaking even
3.	$\frac{\text{Low Load}}{\text{High Power}}$	= Positive Margin	Life space within which to maneuver Surplus

For purposes of load/power/margin analysis, the load and power responses in this study were classified according to the scheme presented by Main as follows:

Low = respondent score of 1, 2, or 3
High= respondent score of 4 or 5

The L/P margin response categories are given in Table 1.

TABLE 1

LOAD/POWER/MARGIN CLASSIFICATION FOR QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES OF ADULT WOMEN STUDENTS

POWER		LOAD 1 Low 2	3	4 High 5
	1			
Low	2	$\frac{\text{Low Load}}{\text{Low Power}}$ = Margin A		$\frac{\text{High Load}}{\text{Low Power}}$ = Margin C
	3	Maintaining Balance Breaking Even		Potential Crisis Susceptible to Breakdown
High	4	$\frac{\text{Low Load}}{\text{High Power}}$ = Margin B		$\frac{\text{High Load}}{\text{High Power}}$ = Margin D
	5	Life space within which to maneuver Surplus		Barely Maintaining Balance Breaking Even

Classifying the responses of the adult women students according to categories A, B, C, or D permitted differentiation of varying degrees of load and power for performing quantitative analysis of the data. If ordered by decreasing levels of margin, the categories would be ranked as B, A, D, and C. While the categories presented in Table 1 follow those presented by Main, intuitively it was of interest to evaluate possible differences between A and D because these categories, although both break even margins, were created by considerably different amounts of responsibilities and resources.

The importance ratings of items in Group A, comprised of low load and low power responses, were compared to those ratings of the high load and high power responses of group D. Of the L/P responses to the 67 items classified as D, 74.6 percent were considered significantly more important by the respondents than the items in group A. Also, an additional 23.9 percent of the responses in group D, although not statistically significantly higher, were numerically greater than the responses in group A. These results provided substantial empirical support to classify A and D responses into two separate groups even though both result in a break even margin.

Margin A is comprised of lower amounts of load and power than D margin; and those items indicated by the respondents as A margin situations were perceived as being considerably less important in their lives than D margin items. Thus, one can speculate that A margin represents situations where balance is being maintained with little effort while D represents situations where considerable effort barely maintains a life balance. In the event of an unforeseen life crisis, a D margin could quickly become a C margin where load is greater than power.

The L/P responses to the 67 items showed that 29.7 percent were considered A margins (maintaining a balance between responsibilities and resources with minimal effort); 15.8 percent were B margins (having life space within which to maneuver); 27.4 percent were C margins (potential crisis); and 27.1 percent were D margins (barely maintaining balance between responsibilities and resources with considerable effort).

The L/P margins indicating the greatest areas of conflict for these adult women students were Child Care where 70 percent of the responses were C or D margins; and Expectations for Self with 62 percent of the responses in these respective margins of potential crisis or barely maintaining balance between responsibilities and resources. The conflict area where there was the greatest surplus of power (26.4 percent in margin B) was Health Status while the Time Management responses indicated the least amount of life space within which to maneuver (only 7.6 percent in margin B).

Analysis of Variance for Load/Power Margin Groups. The independent variables found to most frequently have a significant influence on the distribution of L/P margin responses were reasons for enrollment in the program, marital status, and ages of children. The independent variables that were found to influence the L/P margin responses to a lesser extent were income and employment status. The remaining independent variables found to significantly influence the L/P margin distribution in less than eight percent of the responses were enrollment status; race; employment--full-time/part-time; and children with special needs. Importance was found to be a significant covariate in over 75 percent of the 67 items.

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the responses to the questionnaire and within the limitations of the study, it was concluded that: 1) the load/power model conceptualized by McClusky proved to be a suitable framework for studying the intrapersonal role conflicts of adult women students; 2) a socialization process that prepares young adults for less rigid gender roles will provide long-range solutions for alleviating conflicts experienced by women as they pursue careers outside the home; and 3) during this period of social transition as women are redefining their roles, institutions of higher education should provide broad supportive programs and services to assist them in successfully fulfilling their academic goals.

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The "Mixed" College Classroom: Effects on Class Atmosphere as Perceived by Adult Students and Their Younger Peers

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Research on the life cycle has shown that the developmental tasks faced by various age groups are quite different. For example, individuals in the "age 30 transition" may be seeking an end to the relative flux of the 20s and trying to form a stable base for the next ten years (Lasker, Moore, and Simpson, 1980). According to Erickson (1968), college-age adolescents are seeking an identity, freely experimenting with new roles, and freely rethinking aims and aspirations. When people in these different life phases find themselves together in the same college classroom, what happens? As Lasker, Moore, and Simpson (1980) have pointed out: "Universities are becoming centers where adults of all ages and in all developmental periods meet together. From a life structure perspective, this mix may bring problems--because the needs and concerns of the students are sometimes in conflict--as well as opportunities for mutual learning as each age group draws on the strengths of the others" (p. 14).

As adult students enter traditional on-campus degree programs, undergraduate classes will increasingly contain students of mixed-age groups. It could be hypothesized that the interaction among age groups in these classes will result in an enriched classroom atmosphere, positively affecting the learning that occurs within the class. Or, since each age group grapples with a different set of life questions, an alternative hypothesis would be that the effects on class atmosphere and learning will not be positive. The present study explores the perceptions of both adult students and their younger peers in mixed-age classes about the effects of mixed-age classes on class atmosphere, and, implicitly, on the learning that occurs.

Although the literature on the effects of the mixed-age class is scanty, the studies that have been done suggest that students desire (or, at least, are not bothered by) a mix of ages in class. In spite of the great body of literature showing young peoples' negative attitudes toward older people and aging (e.g., Kogan and Sheldon, 1962), this negative attitude does not seem characteristic of a college classroom situation. The present study attempted to replicate this finding and also explore more deeply certain attitudes held by both younger and older students in mixed-age classes.

Questions Addressed

The questions addressed in the present study fall into five categories.

1. Would students (both younger and adult) express positive attitudes toward the mixed-age class?

2. How do students view adults in class? Are they viewed as more active participants in discussions, inhibitors of younger students, or more shy and quiet than their younger classmates?

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3. How do students perceive relations between adults and younger students outside of class? Do friendships develop, does campus socializing occur, and are study groups awkward or comfortable?

4. How do students perceive instructor behavior in the mixed-age class? Are adults treated well and taken seriously? Should instructors make allowances for adults out of class responsibilities or conduct a mixed-age class differently than usual?

5. Are there differences in student perception, according to age, sex, major, or number of mixed-age classes a student has had in the past? Are there differences in perception based on the type of class in which the student was surveyed?

Method

The method involved surveying both adult and younger students in mixed-age classes at the University of Wisconsin-Green Bay. Students were asked to rate a series of statements about mixed-age classes and also write any comments they had about participating in a mixed-age class.

Selection of Classes. Ten undergraduate classes were selected at random from a list of Fall 1983 courses at the University of Wisconsin-Green Bay. The list, produced by the Registrar, showed the number of students aged 25 or over and the number of students under age 25. Classes which had at least 33% adult students but no more than 66% adults became eligible "mixed-age" classes for this study and the final ten classes were selected from this group. Dual-level classes, i.e., those taken for either graduate or undergraduate credit, were included. Classes with fewer than 10 students were eliminated. These criteria ensured that the classes would have a noticeable mixture of adults and younger students.

Procedure. Instructors of the ten mixed-age classes received a letter asking them to administer a brief questionnaire to students in their class. All cooperated by handing out and collecting the questionnaire at the end of a class period during mid-October 1983. No special instructions were given, as the questionnaire was self-explanatory. All students in class completed the questionnaire except for one who had completed it in another class. No attempt was made to follow up with students who were not in class on the day of the survey.

Questionnaire. The questionnaire had three sections. A general background section asked for students' class standing, age, sex, major, and estimate of how many of their classes had a noticeable mixture of age groups. In the opinion section, students were asked to agree or disagree with twenty statements about mixed-age classes. These statements dealt with preference for an age mix in class, professors' treatment of adults in class, characteristics of adults in class, relationships between younger and older students outside class, and the general effect of adult students on the class. Finally, students were given a space to add their observations about mixed-age classes.

The questionnaire was developed, in part, from personal interviews with 40 adults and younger students in Spring of 1982 (Hogan and Hendrickson, 1983). These interviews generated some of the statements and ideas incorporated into the questionnaire. In addition, the literature and folklore on adult students provided material for the questionnaire. The instrument was pilot tested with a mixed-age class of 50 students (not included in the data) and revised slightly for the present study.

Data Analysis

Frequency distributions for all questionnaire items were produced with crosstabulations by student age group. Opinion items were rated by students on a Likert-type scale with "Strongly Agree," "Agree," "Undecided," "Disagree" and "Strongly Disagree" as scale points. For the analysis of data, the "Strongly Agree" and "Agree" categories were collapsed. Then the percentage of adults (25 and over) agreeing or strongly agreeing with a statement was compared to the percentage of younger students (24 or under) agreeing or strongly agreeing with that item. T-tests were used to determine whether differences between adults' and younger students' response were significant at the .05 or .01 level.

In addition, an Overall Attitude Score was calculated for each student. The Overall Attitude Score was the sum of the ratings for selected opinion items that revealed respondents' favorable or unfavorable attitude toward adult students or the mixed-age class. The higher the Overall Attitude Score, the more favorable attitude the student held toward adults in class. The range was 30-70. Creating a single score to serve as a measure of each student's attitude allowed more flexibility in data analysis. For instance, students with highly favorable attitudes could be compared with those who expressed less favorable attitudes toward the mixed-age class.

Results

Altogether 123 traditional-aged students and 134 adult students in ten classes completed the questionnaire. Students were spread almost equally among the class ranks (freshman, sophomore, etc.) with a slight overrepresentation of seniors. Fifty-seven percent of the students were female. Forty-five percent of those surveyed were business majors with 17% social science majors, 12% humanities majors and the remaining percentage majoring in education, nursing, science, and "undecided" majors. About half (47%) estimated that "almost all" of their classes have had a noticeable mixture of student age groups, reflecting the fact that UW-Green Bay has a student body of over one-third adult students. Most of the students (78%) completed the survey in an evening class.

General Perceptions of Mixed-Age Classes. Overwhelmingly, students expressed positive attitudes about the mixed-age class. Three-fourths of the students agreed that classes composed of students from different age groups are more interesting, have a better atmosphere, and that the presence of adults is generally an asset to the class. Adult students were even more positive about the mixed-age class than were younger students. Significantly more adults than younger students believed that mixed-age classes were more interesting ($t=-3.06$), have a better atmosphere ($t=2.11$), and that adults are an asset ($t=3.67$).

Students reported no preference for classes with their own age group exclusively; only 14% agreed that they would prefer to be in class with students their own age. Significantly more younger students preferred to have classes with adults aged 25-35 rather than with older adults ($t=2.56$). However, the percentages of students expressing this preference was not particularly high--32% of younger students and 18% of adults.

Are students aware of the age mixture of a class or is this an unnoticed feature? Only 22% of the students said they were "unaware of the age mix" of the class. Significantly more adults reported being unaware of the age mix (t=2.35). Apparently, age of class peers is noticed by most students and noted more so by younger students.

Perceptions of adults in Class. About half of the students agreed with the idea that adults participate in class discussions more readily than do younger students. However, adults were not viewed as inhibiting younger students nor slowing the pace of class. Adults were certainly not viewed as shy and quiet in class—an idea with which only 7% agreed. Most students (74%) enjoyed hearing adults relate their past experiences to course material.

In spite of these positive perceptions of adults in class, differences between adult and younger student responses suggest that some younger students are inhibited by adults in class (12% of younger students agreed) and feel adults slow the pace (12% agreed). Responses for younger students were significantly different from adults on these two points (t=2.36 for each item). Twelve percent is, of course, a small minority of younger students.

One of the most revealing items was the response to the statement "Adults and younger students are more alike than different in the classroom." While 62% of the adults agreed with the statement, only 41% of younger students did (t=-3.39). Apparently, younger students perceived adults as less like themselves than adults thought they were.

Instructors of Mixed-Age Classes. Most students (61%) felt that professors take adult students seriously in class, a perception held by similar percentages of adults and younger students. While few students (13%) believed professors actually treated adult students better than younger ones in class, slightly more younger students than adults held this view (t=1.98). As to whether the mixed-age class should be taught differently than a regular class, only 16% of the students agreed. However, significantly more adults than younger students felt this way (t=2.17). About one-quarter of all students believed that professors should make allowances for students who have job and family responsibilities. Overall, students appeared satisfied with instructors' behavior toward the mixed-age class.

Relations Outside Class. Compared to other parts of the survey, the items concerning adult-younger student relationships outside the classroom elicited more mixed responses. For instance, about half of all students (46%) believed that friendships often develop between adult and younger students outside of class. Of all the items, the friendship question had the highest percentage of students (41%) who were "undecided" about whether friendships developed outside of class. Many students (34%) were also undecided as to whether adults and younger students were comfortable socializing between classes or at lunch. Fifty-five percent, however, believed that they were. A mere 10% believed study groups containing younger and adult students would be awkward. Adults and younger students held similar opinions on these issues.

Differences in Perceptions Among Groups. Students' attitudes varied according to several other characteristics other than the age-related differences just discussed. More students in the top half of the Overall Attitude Score distribution were female, humanities majors, or those who reported that "almost all" their classes were mixed-age classes. Students who had morning or afternoon classes were more likely to fall in the upper half of the Overall Attitude Score distribution.

Did students in small discussion classes express more positive attitudes toward the mixed-age class than did students in nondiscussion skills-oriented classes? The data show a mild trend toward students in small discussion classes such as linguistics, literature, political science holding more positive attitudes. In these three classes about two-thirds of the students (67%, 67%, and 64%, respectively) fell into the upper half of the Overall Attitude Score distribution. However, this was true for only 41% of students in an accounting class, 48% in a computer overview class, and 41% in another accounting class. Some classes, for example, criminology and human development saw students dividing equally into the upper and lower half of the Attitude Score distribution. Perhaps this possible trend could be explored in a study with more than ten classes.

Free Responses. Fifty-five of the 257 students wrote a comment in response to the question, "Is there anything else you would like to add about classes that contain a mix of older and traditional-aged students?" Thirty-three of the comments were distinctly positive. Students mentioned the "flavor," "perspective," and "balance" adults brought to class atmosphere. "It's really exciting having older and younger students interacting," was one comment echoed many times. Several students actually chose to take classes at night because of the increased chance of being in a mixed-age class. Only a few comments discussed the disadvantages of the mixed-age class.

Conclusions

The results from this survey indicate that students from various age groups were overwhelmingly positive about the effects of the mixed-age class. The addition of adults in classes once filled only with traditional-aged students was seen to have many benefits and few drawbacks. Adults were even more positive than younger students. Perhaps findings are idiosyncractic: Adults are well-accepted at UW-Green Bay where they have formed a substantial minority for some time. At another, more traditional campus, the response to the mixed-age class might be less favorable. However, the findings of this study suggest that colleges in degree program planning should encourage mixed-age classes and not foster age-segregated classes or classes just for adults. Since students perceive age-diversity as a benefit, colleges might even promote certain courses on that basis.

The study calls into question the need for extensive faculty development as instructors find themselves teaching mixed-age classes. The items dealing with instructors did not reveal student dissatisfaction with instructors' handling of adult students or the mixed-age class. Only a minority of students believed that instructors need to teach mixed-age classes differently than other classes. No evidence was found to support Apps' (1981) contention that "many instructors fail to acknowledge the legitimacy of the [adult] student's experience as knowledge" (p. 76).

The situation revealed in this study supports another statement by Apps (1981) concerning the atmosphere of the mixed-age classroom: "It is an interplay that causes sparks to fly in the classroom. And no one is asleep. And the traditional students are perking up." In short, this study does not suggest massive problems with having people of different life phases together in class; rather, class enrichment occurs with diversity.

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PLANNING SUCCESSFUL CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS: A SYSTEMS APPROACH

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INTRODUCTION

Why is it that some well planned and coordinated conferences succeed while others fail? Why do some programs meet their educational objectives while others do not? The answers to these and other important questions about program planning will be addressed in this paper.

The major purpose of this concept paper is to present a dynamic systems approach model for planning successful programs/conferences. Successful programs address the specific needs of the participants, are instructionally effective, are qualitatively productive, and contribute to the outcomes of the supporting organization.

Using the Systems Approach Model as a viable alternative plan ensures the planners greater flexibility, creativity, and practicality in the program plannning process. The Major components of the Model are illustrated in Figure 1.

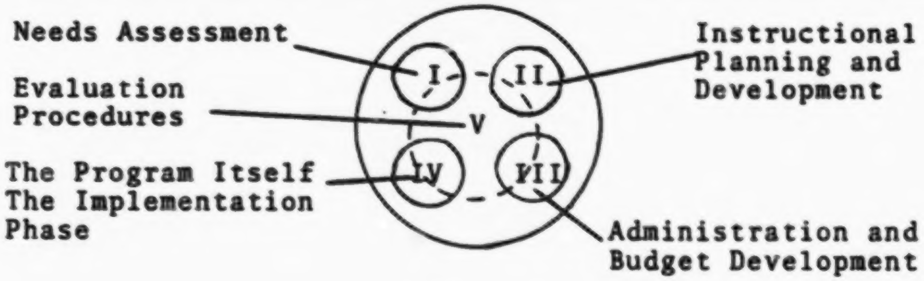
Needs Assessment
Evaluation Procedures
The Program Itself The Implementation Phase
I
II
V
IV
III
Instructional Planning and Development
Administration and Budget Development

Figure 1.
The Major Components of The Systems Approach Model

All five components of the model are dynamically interrelated and interdependent. Furthermore, all five components are essential and must be satisfactorily completed for the systems approach model to succeed. Specific strategies and assignments for the program planners are outlined for all five components

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presented. Planners may, in order to achieve the desired outcomes, work effectively on two or three of the components simultaneously depending on time limitations, on identification of the necessary resources, on obtaining the required finances, and on committee assignment focus. The dynamic Systems Approach Model allows for flexibility, practicality, and creativity on the part of the planners. Further development of the model will be discussed as each component is presented.

A comparison and contrast of the Systems Approach Model will be made with five linear models, and the advantages and disadvantages of linear models will be discussed. The Systems Approach Model is an evolution of the studies done by McKinley and Smith (1965) and those updated by McKinley (1980). The Systems Approach Model has been successfully tried and tested several times, and has been evaluated positively as having made possible the achievement of the desired outcomes of successful continuing education programs.

COMPONENT ONE: NEEDS ASSESSMENT

In defining a needs assessment, it is important for the planners to know the major purpose or rationale as to why such a program should be developed. Once this question is answered sufficiently other issues come into clearer focus. Further, the planners should have a knowledge of past proceedings of conferences, courses offered, programs tried, and their degree(s) of effectiveness, as well as the quality of participation and measured outcomes of previous programs. Also, it is important for the planners to work within institutional policies and federal and state guidelines for financial support, certification requirements, and endorsements.

Once the purpose is determined by the planners, a subsequent question to be answered is: Who should attend the program? Use of multiple methods of formal needs assessment are recommended such as questionnaires, survey samplings, and telephone surveys. Informal needs assessment procedures such as conversations, networking procedures, and involvement of the client group leaders as planners of the program may also be useful. These tools should be utilized in a systematic fashion to help provide an adequate decision-making base. The planners should further understand adult learners' needs, aspirations, and limitations, as participant needs are an integral part of the needs assessment.

The program planners should also practice effective meeting management and group process skills. They should establish time lines, delegate committee assignments, and train group facilitators. It is important to plan the program in the context of relevancy to the learner's needs, as well as within the mission(s) of the sponsoring organization.

COMPONENT TWO: INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

Once the learners are properly identified and the purpose of the program has been established, and the needs of the group have been determined, the planners are ready for Instructional Planning and Development. This planning process includes:

1. *defining* the purpose/theme of the event/program;
2. *identifying* program outcomes through written meaningful goals and objectives;
3. *selecting* appropriate activities and packaging instructional/learning materials in an attractive format;
4. *identifying* effective instructors or resource persons with appropriate qualifications and credentials;
5. *identifying* program logistics which includes facilities coordination, audio-visual techniques, and scheduling of time and people; and
6. *developing* and administering formative evaluation procedures which build on the program's goals to ensure program success and meaningful learning.

COMPONENT THREE: ADMINISTRATION AND BUDGET DEVELOPMENT

Once the instructional plans have been formulated and the goals of the program have been identified, it is important to create a manageable budget. Planning the administration and budget of a conference includes:

1. *formulating* a cost effective budget;
2. *determing* direct and indirect costs and charges, setting realistic fee structures and obtaining adequate clerical and support services;
3. *writing* a grant proposal if suitable funding is available;
4. *setting up* administrative mechanisms to handle enrollment and registration procedures, refund policies and a bookkeeping system;
5. *developing* competency in public relations and advanced publicity procedures;
6. *coordinating* facilities to ensure adult "creature comforts" such as proper heating, ventilation, room arrangements, breaks, meals, and other miscellaneous details.

COMPONENT FOUR: IMPLEMENTATION PHASE OF PROGRAM

The planners should monitor the program constantly so that it "delivers" the stated objectives. the planners should be aware that last minute crises do occur in all well planned conferences and must be dealt with appropriately. The planners should monitor the facilities, the instructional content and pacing, and make the necessary program or schedule adjustments to ensure participant satisfaction and optimum learning effectiveness. The management of last minute "crises" can be dealt with through a knowledge of audio-visual techniques, conference preparation skills, proper planning skills, and coordination techniques.

COMPONENT FIVE: EVALUATION PROCEDURES

Program planners should follow both formative and summative evaluation procedures in planning successful programs. In using formative evaluation procedures, the program's effectiveness is measured throughout the entire systems approach process. The planners use needs assessment to determine the participants' identities, needs, and interests. The planners formulate meaningful instructional goals and objectives, contact appropriate resource persons, and establish suitable learning evaluation strategies throughout Phase Two. A cost effective budget, adequate staffing and support personnel, and effective administrative procedures are utilized in Phase Three of the model. The program is constantly monitored and necessary changes are made throughout Phase Four of the model. At each Phase, formative evaluation is used to determine the effectiveness of the process.

A summative evaluation is accomplished at the end of the conference. Interpreting the data gathered from the participants, staff and instructors helps planners to decide if the program was effective, and if the participants achieved their desired learning objectives. This data can be used in planning subsequent conferences. The final write-up of the conference proceedings and the publication of results concludes the program.

THE SYSTEMS MODEL COMPARED WITH LINEAR MODELS

Bergevin, Morris and Smith (1963), McKinley and Smith (1965), Easley (1974), Houle (1974), Thieffeld (1977), Knowles (1980), McKinley (1980), and Smith (1982) pointed out that adult educators and program planners have commonalities in their models of program planning. Generally, they start with a thorough needs assessment, proceed to establish program priorities and responsibilities, select program objectives and a suitable theme, allocate available resources, select appropriate teaching/learning techniques and formats of instruction, evaluate the results, and determine program effectiveness.

The steps of the linear program models are sequential, very thorough, and include necessary measures to produce quality programs. However, due to the sequential nature of linear program models, overlooking a step in the planning process will in most cases cause the program to fail since the model provides no easy method for returning to the omitted step. Time constraints on planners and cost cutting measures imposed after the planning is underway may also cause the program to fail since, again, the linear program model provides no easy method for returning to previous steps.

The Systems Approach Model allows for flexibility, practicality and creativity on the part of the planners. As illustrated in Figure 2, it is possible to enter the model at any phase.

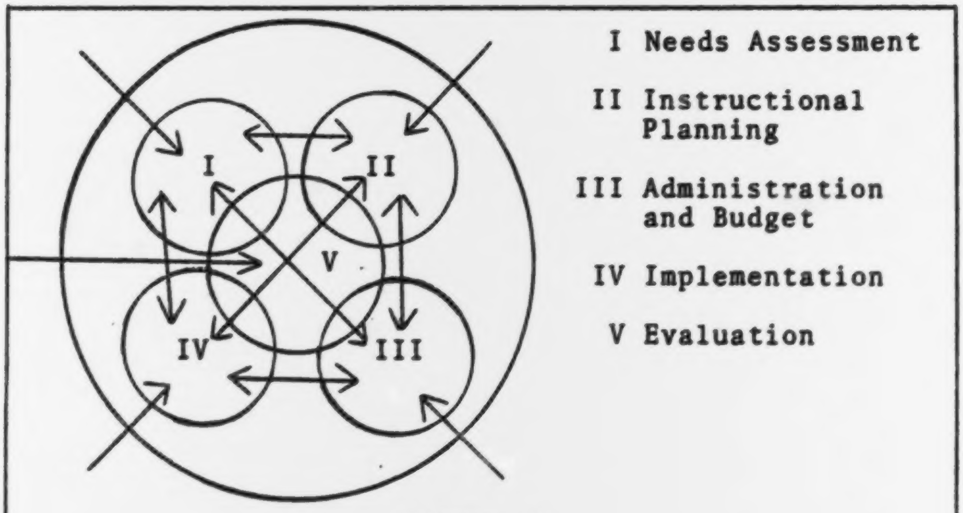

Figure 2.
The Systems Approach Model allows entry at any Phase Also note that evaluation occurs throughout the planning process.

Take, for example, a case in which the planners received a substantial grant to plan a program. The starting point in the model is logically at Component 3: Budget/Administration. A thorough needs Assessment would, then be worked out, instructional Plans developed, and Evaluation Procedures spelled out.

In another case, a noted educator or "superstar" consented to be part of the program. The starting point is logically at Component 2: Instructional Planning and Development, and the entire program would be built around the esteemed educator's availability and participation. However, a thorough Needs Assessment must also be undertaken, a cost effective budget developed, and evaluation measures included.

What if last year's program failed miserably? The starting point in the sequence is logically at Component 5: Evaluation Procedures, to determine why the program failed. Perhaps the planners should begin evaluation with Component 4: Program or Implementation Phase: Was the program monitored adequately? Was the program meaningful to the participants? In this case, again, a thorough Needs Assessment still needs to be done, a budget developed, and the learning objectives analyzed.

The Systems Approach Model allows for flexibility at the starting point, depending upon the reality of the situation, what is, rather than what might be. Evaluation procedures are undertaken at each phase of the planning process. The Systems Approach Model is clearly a viable alternative model for planning successful programs.

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I. NEGLECTED THEMES IN ADULT EDUCATION HISTORICAL RESEARCH IN CANADA

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II. INTRODUCTION

The discipline of adult education has constantly benefited from the contributions from psychologists, philosophers, program planners, sociologists, empirical researchers and historians. The aim of this paper is to draw attention to the input by historians into adult education research in Canada.

III. METHODOLOGY

It was desirable for this writer to select a province as case study for this subject, given the vastness of Canada and the constitutional provisions which make education the responsibility of provinces. Factors of proximity, access to literature and to historians in British Columbia were an incentive to select British Columbia. Bibliographical guides, Education Indexes, Government reports, periodicals, interviews constituted the secondary and primary sources used to identify the extent of work done and the areas in need of attention.

IV. FINDINGS

1. Assumptions on value of historical research

The importance of historical research in adult education has always been emphasized by scholars in the field. Thus the Joint Committee of American Educational Research Association and the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association recommended in 1949 a more vigorous pursuit of historical research to help 'undergird future progress and planning'.[1] Fifteen years later, Coolie Verner of the University of British Columbia observed that: 'At the moment, adult education here is so preoccupied with day-to-day tasks that it has not established sufficient identification with its past, and thus has no affection for the literature which it has produced'.[2] Verner was convinced that the absence of historical research could explain the 'persistent recurrence of the same problems generation after generation'.[3] It was perhaps Wilbur Hallenbeck of Columbia University who has put the case of historical research most forcefully in his declaration in 1938 when he charged: 'Some adult education leaders evidently think there is nothing to be learned from the past. One (had) said: "I do not see how such a study can be of general or lasting interest and value"...If adult educators wish to build on substantial foundations, if they wish to capitalize gains and to avoid mistakes, if they wish to understand the modifications that must be made in adult education to fit into the framework of a changed and changing society, if they wish to concentrate experimentation in untried areas without repeating failures of the past, then this attitude has no place in adult education today'.[4] It must be added that in spite of the declarations of intent, the input through historical research has been small, negligible, feeble and spasmodic. For example only 5.6 per cent of works listed on Adult Education in British Columbia were classified under history.[5] (In New Zealand as many as 15.7 per cent of works listed were described as historical studies).[6]

In most universities the world over there are no courses sufficient to expose students to historical consciousness in adult education. Verner noted that students of adult education were not adequately groomed to value historical work, and lamented that 'too little history on the use of earlier writing is

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introduced so that students are historical illiterates even though history is directly relevant to the present'.[7] Thus most of the professional historians in the field of adult education had come in after a Master's degree in history.[8] The contribution of Departments of History to the furtherance of knowledge in adult education is almost non-existing.[9] Perhaps this situation can be explained by a lack of awareness outside adult education circles of the importance of adult education movement in shaping individual behaviour and attitudes, in influencing community development and in responding to societal values.

It must be pointed out that there have been some positive developments in the furtherance of historical research in recent years. For example in 1978 the Adult Education Research Conference featured a symposium on the subject. Furthermore Adult Education and Studies in Adult Education have published articles on historical themes in adult education. One more encouraging development has been the establishment of an Adult Education History Network by the International Council for Adult Education in 1982.

2. Scope of existing works on British Columbia

Most of the existing works on the province are on the more traditional manifestations of adult education.[10] Thus literary efforts, continuing education centres, colleges, university extension services, and adult education professional institutions have been served. The Canadian Association for Adult Education has been particularly most generously served—perhaps because the Association provided an incentive through publication facilities. Also given some generous coverage are committed personalities who have helped to shape the fortunes of adult education work in the province.

Some of the studies, especially those deriving from Selman are well done, penetrating and incisive and written up after a 'combing of the archives', usually more than one, combined with extensive interviews. In more recent times the work of Timothy Pyrch for the University of British Columbia has contributed to intellectual history and specifically to the history of community development. Equally significant has been Nitkin's introductory work on the Open Learning Institute.

3. Neglected theme--distance education

One broad area that has been persistently neglected by adult education historians is distance education. Yet Canada has over the years pioneered much work in the field and acquired a reputation of providing education for the totality of its population scattered over vast areas, and unequally spread. How did Canada decide to adopt distance education to provide for its population? What were the origins of distance education in the various provinces? What was the impact of the Miners' Strike of 1912 to 1914 on the establishment of correspondence education for the miners in British Columbia in 1919?

There are as yet no studies on the work of Queen's University in Ontario, an institution which began distance education work as early at 1889. Also not explored is the subject of the role of politics and constitutional development on the furtherance of distance education work in Canada, and how a National Open University of the British model has not emerged in Canada. There is also need to undertake a historical survey over time and space of the subject of attrition among distant learners, and of factors that have persistently affected academic achievement of adult learners. The issue of educational delivery systems could also be explained with profit, noting the influence of technology on the systems and its impact on the learners. Some of the themes suggested as worthy of exploring by the Research Committee established in 1938 are still relevant: The Teaching the Sciences and Technical subjects by correspondence, Organization and Supervision of Correspondence Education, The

Role of Libraries and Guidance and Counselling in Correspondence Education.

4. Neglected theme--international conferences

Historians of adult education have also failed to examine the important subject of international conferences. Thus the story has not been told of the contribution of Canada to continuing and adult education through international conferences. Yet out of the twelve conferences of the International Council for Distance Education from 1938 to 1982 Canada has hosted three. Canada also took the lead by hosting the first of the conferences in 1938 at Victoria, British Columbia where the International Council on Correspondence Education (ICCE) was launched. Perhaps no one has put the importance of international conferences more succinctly than H.C. Etter, the first secretary of the ICCE who contended in 1938 that the ICCE conference would be fruitful because it possessed 'benefits in terms of stimulus to revitalised and freshly directed effort, research in the field of correspondence instruction, and cooperation on an international scale, in the improvement of one of the most important educational services available to boys and girls, youths and adults, in the nations represented at this Conference and in other countries where correspondence instruction is or may be practised'.[11]

It should be easy for any willing historian to construct the history of the first of the ICCE conferences. For there is no dearth of material on the subject. There are the minutes of the conference, carefully preserved and faithfully recorded *verbatim* under the supervision of the Education Department boss, J.W. Gibson and published as part of the Conference Proceedings by the Department of Education of British Columbia at Victoria. The minutes are accurate, but lack the information on the background to the conference itself. The annual Reports of the Department of Education submitted by the Superintendent to the Minister of Education are helpful and contain useful details. We must therefore turn to oral interviews, diaries and personal papers. The B.C. periodical, the *B.C. Teacher*, and the newspapers, *Victoria Times* and *Victoria Colonist*, also carry useful information on the conference. Yet most of the earlier studies appear deficient. Bertram Wales (1958), for example, writing on 'The Development of Adult Education in British Columbia' for an Ed.D. degree of Oregon State College' in 1958 interviewed John Kyle, pioneer of correspondence education work in British Columbia. But Kyle had halted contacts with correspondence education work in 1929 when a Division of Correspondence education was created and J.W. Gibson appointed the Director. Gibson ought to have been interviewed by Wales for accounts of developments from 1929 to 1940 when Gibson left that Division to assist with adult education for the army. (He was still alive at the time Wales was collecting material for the thesis and died only shortly after the thesis had been completed).

Gibson himself had attempted to write a history of correspondence education in British Columbia and had presented an account of the origins of the work of his Department at the 1938 Conference. In the course of his presentation he had declared that British Columbia pioneered correspondence education in Canada and that with the establishment of a correspondence ecucation unit at Victoria in 1929, 'the first Elementary Correspondence School in America was under way'.[12] Gibson did not, however, seem to have used the Department of Education papers including the Annual Reports. For the Reports for 1918 - 1919 had drawn attention to some progress in correspondence education in Alberta. Secondly Gibson did not seem to have interviewed Kyle the founder of the programme who was still in the Department of Education when Gibson wrote. Indeed any input by Kyle would have helped the quality of the presentation by Gibson. For Kyle was actively associated with the promotion of adult night school from 1910 when he played an important role in the movement which led to the amendment of the Public Schools Act and the subsequent official recognition and financial support granted night school work. From 1931 Kyle was also in charge of technical education and night schools and had been responsible in 1919 for the decision about the establishment of correspondence education. It is indeed strange to note that Kyle had not been invited to make a presentation at the 1938 conference (his absence from the conference photograph may perhaps be justified!)

The most unsatisfactory work thus far on distance education is the paper titled 'A Short History of the International Council on Correspondence Education, 1938-1969' published in the Proceedings of the ICCE 1969 Conference.[13] The paper which gave no information about its sources was at best a chronicle and chronicles are not accepted as good historical work. For history is primarily an interpretation of events not the stale record of events. The task of interpretation involves the collection of 'moth-eaten records' from 'the depths of archives'; examining the archival papers which Professor Butterfield describes as 'the key that seemed to unlock the last drawer, making men feel that, now at last, they could really get down to the study of history'. Access to sources is taken most seriously and Michael Paffard is fascinated about 'the task of travelling...and the insatiable curiosity and a lust for antiquities.' Lord Halifax compares that fascination to 'a pleasure like that of wrestling with a Fine Woman'. The failure to search, to understand and to examine has led the author of the Paris paper to name Gibson the founder of the ICEE, and to state that 'the late Mr. Rex C. Haight as elected as the first President' of the ICEE.[14]

For the purpose of correctness, and as evidence of what historians should be doing, we shall examine the events which led to the convening of the first International Conference on Distance Education on 22 August 1938 at Victoria. For our evidence we have few materials. Gibson did not provide a full report on the background to the conference in any of the known documents he left with the Ministry of Education. But his biographer drew attention to the third Annual Conference of the National Committee on Supervised Correspondence Study held in New York City in August 1936. The Chairman of the Committee, Mr. R.C. Haight, Deputy Superintendent, Department of Public Instruction, Helena, Montana in the United States of America, had invited Mr. Gibson to the conference to present 'a vivid picture of his experiences'.[15] Gibson had however done more than present an account of the status of correspondence education in British Columbia to the conference. He began to encourage the conference participants to begin spreading the coverage of participation. His biographer reported that: At the conclusion of the Conference J.W. extended an invitation on behalf of B.C.'s Department of Education, to hold the Conference of 1938 in Victoria, B.C. In due course the invitation was accepted.[16] The biographer did not supply the source of her information, which may have in all probability, been Mr. Gibson himself. But we know from the Minutes of the first International Conference that Dr. Knute O. Broady who was also present at the New York Conference testified 'Gibson planted in the minds of some of us the idea of this International Conference'. He concluded that: Mr. Gibson...and Mr. Haight...talked together informally at the National Conference on Supervised Correspondence Study in session at New York City, about the possibility of holding an international conference.[17] Broady held both Gibson and Haight responsible for convening the conference. He reported that 'the more they talked about it and the more they discussed it with others, the more enthusiastic every one became. This explains why we have here today the beginning of the fruition of the idea that these two men shared'.[18] In the process of the conference, Gibson had overshadowed the Conference President, R.C. Haight. Thus during the first elections of the Council Mr. Haight was not nominated to any elective position. Mr. Gibson, on the other hand, was nominated Vice President. Mr. Gibson was thankful for the nomination and with modesty declared: 'So long as we have Mr. Broady as President, I will not go back on him'.[19] The point must be made clearly, therefore, that although he possessed much enthusiasm and was responsible for taking the initiative for founding the ICCE, Gibson was by no means the founder of the organisation. Some credit must thus be given to Mr. Haight, now forgotten as co-founder of the ICCE. It is thus clear that the ICCE was founded by Canada and the United States and that Australia and New Zealand were subsequently invited to provide the conference an international flavour. It is important for historians to make this point about the origins of ICCE. It is also important to note that Mr. Haight was not elected the first President of the ICCE conference. The Minutes of the Conference provide help to the historian. The business session during which elections were held had begun at 2:00 p.m. on Wednesday, August 24, 1938 at the Lower Lounge of the Empress Hotel, Victoria, with Mr. Haight presiding. When the chairman asked for nominations to the post of President, Mr. A.E. Karnes, Commissioner of Education at Juneau, Alaska had got up to nominate Dr. Broady, a Professor of Education at the Teachers' College, University of Nebraska, Lincoln. Dr. Broady protested, drawing attention to the presence of Mr. Haight. Mr. Haight had promptly and graciously responded: 'Your objection is overruled. It has been moved and seconded and nominations closed, that Dr. Broady be President of the next Conference'.[20] Thus in 1938 Dr. Broady was elected the first ICCE President. There were no elections before that date.

5. Neglected theme--biographical studies

Neglected are biographical studies of makers of Canadian adult education in British Columbia, as Gordon Selman devotes considerable attention to the architects of the Canadian Association for Adult Education, Ned Corbett and Roby Kidd. Thus we have little information on the circumstances for the foundation of the Scientific Institute by the settlers at Craigflower near Victoria in 1854.[21] Nor do we know much of the life and work of Rev. William Duncan, organizer of night schools for adult Indians at Fort Simpson, and anglican missionary of 1857. We have no answers to the question of who brought the Victoria Mechanics' Institute to Victoria in 1864 and what were the influences of the British Mechanics' Institutes formed under the patronage of George Birkbeck of Glasgow. We know that the Victoria Literary Society founded in Victoria in 1895 was the handiwork of Lady Aberdeen, wife of the Governor-General, but we have no information on the lady, including her name, circumstances of life and factors which encouraged her to launch an educational offensive in the direction of adult education. Indeed there is need to explore the whole issue of British influence on the formation of adult education institutions in British Columbia, and show why up till 1914 there were no Workers' Educational Associations in the province that had seen the emergence of Mechanics' Institutes and open to an overwhelming British adult education influence and tradition.

The existing studies on aspects of the history of public policy in adult education should be developed to focus on issues outside the period of the depression between the two World Wars. To this end work is desirable on the attitudes and role of the major political parties over time; the communities and the determination of priorities, and public institutions towards the development of adult education. One would thus have critical studies such that would explain for example why Professor Robert Wallace was resolved to further the extension work of the University of Victoria from 1948 and why the University of British Columbia chose to expand its continuing education work from 1949.[22]

6. Neglected theme--comparative studies

There are no studies on the nature and types of adult education practised by the native Indians before the coming of the white Canadians. Yet such studies would help Program Planners working among native Indians. The roots of modern adult education have also not been adequately discussed. Yet is is useful to examine the processes of the adoption in various countries including Australia, New Zealand, United States, Canada, Africa and the Caribbeans, of British adult education practices and traditions such as the Workers' Education Association, the Mechanics' Institutes, The Fabian Society, University extension services, and lately, the Open University. Another way of attempting the comparative survey is to examine the impact of adult education movement on various communities within a province, or in a given community over time. The aim would be to identify changes effected and explain the phenomenon of change. One can also measure the strength of adult education movements during various epochs or in defined geographical locations.

If we may once more return to the subject of distance education we would see some fruitful areas for research in comparative studies. For example it has been suggested that correspondence education was founded by accident at British Columbia in 1919.[23] The accident factor for the founding of distance education work of Athabasca University has been emphasized by Hughes who contends that the original aim of the university was to provide a fourth conventional university to relieve the University of Alberta of additional burden of admission of students.[24] One should ask if the accident factor has been present in the founding of other distance education projects in the country. Equally useful is an investigation into the influence of the British Open University on the education policy formulators in Canada. For as in the Open Learning Institute the founding Vice-Chancellor of the British Open University, Lord Perry, was invited to Canada shortly before the Institute was launched.[25] There are other possible themes worthy of investigation.

V. DISCUSSION

All the existing works, without exception, have created gaps in our knowledge of adult education and opened up our appetite for more information and critical analysis. One thus recognises the need for work in the broad areas that have been neglected, a neglect caused partly because those engaged in historical research are too few and partly because of the failure of historical researchers outside the adult education field to take some interest in the subject.

It is also clear that the quality of works produced is varied and some of the studies have sacrified truth for literature and defied many of the known canons of historical research including thorough search, accurate information and reasoned judgement. There is therefore a need to ensure that all historical works seek to present accurate information. Historical scholars should also seek to be exhaustive and analytical. But more important would be the need for historians of adult education to adopt a more aggressive posture in coverage and demonstration of skill, involving a vigorous analysis based on a greater amount of penetrating information, and broader scope of issues and geographical spread.

The idea that should thus guide all the studies should be historical, and involve the use of the historical analysis to explain issues and attempt interpretations. Apart from the fact that the exercise should be satisfying and academically rewarding, it should raise questions that only historians by virtue of their skills could raise. If in the end an informed presentation emerges, the work of the historian would have been done, and contribution to the knowledge of adult education richer.

VI. NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. See Needed Research in Adult Education, Report of the Joint Committee of the American Educational Research Association and the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association (Washington, D.C., American Educational Research Association, 1949) pp 23-24

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3. Ibid.
4. Hallenbeck, Wilbur C.'Historical Antecedents' Journal of Adult Education vol. X no. 2 (April 1938) p.168.
5. Computed from Thornton, E. and Dickinson, Gary. 'A Working Bibliography of Adult Education in British Columbia' in Adult Education in British Columbia (Vancouver, B.C., Faculty of Education, 1971) pp 123-129.
6. Computed from Boshier, Roger. Adult and Continuing Education in New Zealand 1851-1978: A Bibliography (Vancouver, B.C. Faculty of Education and Canadian Association for Adult Education, 1979)
7. Verner, Coolie. 'Some Reflections on Graduate Professional Education in Adult Education' Canadian Journal of Higher Education vol. VIII no. 2 (1978) p. 47.
8. Gordon Selman obtained an M.A. (History) of the University of British Columbia in 1963 while Timothy Purch took an M.A. (History) at the University of Alberta in 1966. Both historians have produced excellent monographs on adult education history which have proved helpful to this essay. See, for example, G. Selman, 'A History of Fifty Years of Extension Service by Association for Adult Education, 1965) and T. Pyrch, 'The Community Development Concept in the Adult Education Movement, 1919-1960' (Ed.D. Dissertation, University of British Columbia, 1983).
9. This view was confirmed to me in an interview with Gordon Selman on October 21, 1983 at Vancouver, B.C.
10. A comprehensive list is provided as Appendix to this paper.
11. Department of Education, Victoria, B.C. Report of the First International Conference on Correspondence Education (Victoria, B.C. Department of Education, 1938) p.219.
12. Ibid., p. 92
13. International Council on Correspondence Education, Report of the 1969 Paris Conference (Paris, 1969) pp 337-339.
14. Ibid.
15. Gibson, Belle C. Teacher-Builder: The Life and Works of J.W. Gibson (Victoria, Morris Printing Company Ltd., 1961) p. 106.
16. Ibid.
17. Report of the First International Conference on Correspondence Education p. 10.
18. Ibid.
19. Ibid., p. 220.
20. Ibid.
21. What one has at the moment is the sketchy work by Selman, A Historical table of adult education in Canada (Vancouver, B.C., Adult Education Research Centre, n.d.).
22. This extensive analysis is missing from the work by Laurence Devlin and John Clarke, 'Extension Activities at the University of Victoria' Adult Education in British Columbia (1971) pp 67-73.
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ANDRAGOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS: SOME COUNTER INTUITIVE LOGIC

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Introduction

This paper will review the evolution of the concept of andragogy, examining distortions and assumptions that have emerged. Two specific assumptions will be examined logically and conceptually to set the stage for empirical testing.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT

Andragogy as a Philosophy

Andragogy, as a concept and philosophical orientation, is older than most people think. The term "Androgogik" was used by Kapp, a German teacher, in 1833 to suggest that education for adults could and should be as normal for adults as for children. (Van Enckevort, 1971)

All but forgotten, the term surfaced again in 1921 under the pen of Rosenstock, a German social scientist, elaborating on the differences between pedagogy (children's education) and andragogy (professional education of adults). (ibid, p.39)

It did not gain wide usage outside Germany until 1951 when a Swiss Psychiatrist, Hanselmann, used the word "andragogic" to refer to the non-medical treatment of less serious neuroses. He recommended the re-education of adults as treatment, but also stressed his belief that in a sound society, adults must have opportunities to learn. (Hanselmann, 1951)

Andragogy vs Pedagogy

In the 1960's and 1970's the term gained wider acceptance outside Germany and was significantly boosted in popularity with the appearance of Knowles' first edition of The Modern Practice of Adult Education. (1970) In that edition, Knowles set up a "straw man", pedagogy, and through implication, let pedagogy stand for youth education and andragogy stand for adult education. Pedagogy represented mostly didactic, teacher-centered approaches; andragogy represented democratic, learner-centered approaches.

Then, with his 1980 edition, Knowles capitulated to cries of "foul" from educators suggesting the dichotomy was false:

> I am at the point now of seeing that andragogy is simply another model of assumptions about learners to be used alongside the pedagogical model of assumptions, thereby providing two alternative models for testing out the assumptions as to their "fit" with particular situations. Furthermore, the models are probably most useful when seen not as dichotomous but rather as two ends of a spectrum, with a realistic assumption in a given situation falling in between the two ends. (p.43)

Thus, after a decade of positioning andragogy vs pedagogy, the potent pen of Knowles now suggests they are opposite ends of a spectrum, which places them in geometical opposition but no longer mutually exclusive categories. The concept grows in strange and unpredictable ways!

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Andragogy as Prescription

Continuing to use Knowles (1980) as an example, one can see the further "development" of the concept. He starts with a definition, based on European tradition and Greek terminology (p.42), then contrasts andragogy with pedagogy (p.43), summarizes the premises on which andragogy is based, i.e. four assumptions about the characteristics of adults as learners (pp. 43-45), and finally develops several implications for practice (pp. 45-54). Throughout, he builds a case for andragogy that is more than mere assumptions about adults as learners. For example:

> ... in congruence with the adult's self-concept of self-directivity, andragogical practice treats the learning-teaching transaction as the mutual responsibility of learners and teacher. In fact, the teacher's role is redefined as that of a procedural technician, resource person, and coinquirer; more a catalyst than an instructor; more a guide than a wizard. (p. 48)

The reader must now assume that andragogy is more than a belief or description of adults as learners; andragogy is a way of teaching and redefines the role of teacher as "procedural technician, resource person, and coinquirer". The implication is that, if one wants to apply the philosophy of andragogy, one must take on these role changes and not be an "instructor" or "wizard". Presumably, those roles are left for pedagogy.

Knowles goes on to imply even more:

> A basic element in the technology of andragogy is the involvement of the learners in their own learning, with the teacher serving as a procedural guide and content resource. (p. 48)

Andragogy has now been labeled a "technology", suggesting it is a science or art form to be followed if one is working with adults, a position Knowles took in the 1970 ediition but claimes to have abandoned in the 1980 edition. (p.43)

As the concept develops, it gets more prescriptive:

> ... an andragogical learning situation ... is alive with meetings of small groups—planning committees, learning-teaching teams, consultative groups, project task forces—sharing responsibility for helping one another learn. (p. 49)

Here Knowles is unequivocal. If one is to teach according to andragogical beliefs, assumptions, or principles (we are never quite certain), one should use small group techniques—with all learners, goals, and situations. There are no qualifiers or conditions added.

The concept continues to build and now moves into the realm of theory:

> ... andragogical theory prescribes a process of self-evaluation... (p. 49)

There is no longer any question. Andragogy has been elevated to the status of theory and is explicitly prescriptive. The concept has been taken from a basic belief to a theoretical posture, prescribing roles for the instructor, roles for the learners, and instructional techniques applicable across various situations, goals and learner characteristics.

Clearly, Knowles has taken more than a little liberty in redefining andragogy based on a set of assumptions about adults as learners. His use of language is dangerously subtle in developing the concept from philosophical orientation to prescriptive "theory", implying an extensive base of knowledge about how adults learn and how best to teach them, across variations in context, goals, subject matter, and types of learners. Yet, almost as an after-thought, in the closing page of the chapter defining andragogy, he says, "I don't see andragogy as an ideology at all, but a system of assumptions about learners that needs to be tested our for different learners in different situations." (p.59) It needed to be said at the beginning of the chapter and reiterated throughout, by example as well as proclamation.

TESTING ANDRAGOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS

Arising out of this confusion, two assumptions seem worthy of further examination. First the assumption that adults are self-directed learners, and second, that adults are best taught through collaborative modes of education. Each assumption will be examined on logical grounds.

Assumption No. 1: Adults have a deep psychological need to be generally self-directed. (Knowles, 1980, p.43)

The term "self-directed" is used rather loosely in much of the adult education literature. (e.g. Chené, 1983) However, in most instances, it implies a desire and capability on the part of learners to be autonomous (to varying degrees) in making decisions regarding the planning and management of their learning. Specifically, self-directed learners would seek some control over the following tasks (adapted from Knowles, 1978, pp. 108-109):

1. assessing or identifying learning needs;
2. specifying goals or objectives;
3. locating and selecting appropriate resources;
4. selecting or designing appropriate learning strategies and activities;
5. deciding on location for learning;
6. sequencing resources and activities;
7. effectively organizing and allocating time;
8. engaging in learning activities;
9. evaluating learning;
10. reassessing needs;

Tasks one through five could be considered planning tasks and six through ten, management and evaluation tasks. Presumably, self-directed learners have the desire and the capability to participate in decision-making for all aspects of planning and managing learning that affects them.

Guglielmino (1977) defines self-directedness differently. In developing an instrument to measure a learner's readiness to be self-directed, she suggests there are eight factors to consider:

1. love of learning;
2. self-concept as an effective independent learner;
3. tolerance of risk, ambiguity, and complexity in learning;
4. creativity;
5. view of learning as a lifelong, beneficial process;
6. initiative in learning;
7. self-understanding;
8. acceptance of responsibility for one's own learning;

Guglielmino is attempting to measure an internal state of psychological readiness to engage in the specific tasks mentioned by Knowles. Knowles goes further to say, "The psychological definition of adulthood is the point at which individuals perceive themselves to be essentially self-directing." (1980, p. 46)

At this point there is no reconciling the two positions regarding self-directedness, for according to Guglielmino (personal communication, May, 1983) self-directed learner readiness is somewhat normally distributed across the adult population used to establish norms for the Self Directed Learner Readiness Scale. That would mean that approximately half the adult population is well below Knowles' definition of psychological adulthood and the remaining half is in varying degrees of achieving that adulthood.

What Knowles is recommending in his vision of andragogy seems to be a shift in authority and responsibility away from the instructor and toward the learner, to actively engage the learner in collaborative planning and management of learning activities. Yet, if Guglielmino's findings and instrument are valid (e.g. Long & Agyekum, 1983), one would have to reason that adults vary in their state of readiness to take on the tasks of planning and manageing their learning.

Assumption No. 2: While recognizing that situational factors may periodically demand one specific mode, literature in the field of adult education, however, supports the Shared-Membership Mode and its characteristics as generally the most effective and appropriate mode for teaching adults. (Conti, 1978, p.2)

Conti is referring to something called the Collaborative Mode of education which recommends a shared authority for making decisions related to what will be learned, how it will be learned, and how it will be evaluated. He is not alone in recommending such an approach: Bergevin (1967, p. 168), Darkenwald & Merriam (1982, p. 82), Houle (1971, p. 35), Knowles (1980, p. 48), and Rogers (1969, p. 163) all make similar statements about the value of shared authority and collaboration in adult learning. It seems quite clear, several respectable authors agree that learning should be a cooperative venture and adults (as well as children)should participate in making decisions that affect their learning. What is not clear is the conditions under which the extent of collaboration would or should vary. Before accepting this assumption, three questions should be addressed:

1. What situations (institutional, content, or goal variations) are well-suited to collaborative education? And which situations are not well-suited to collaborative education?
2. For what types of learners is collaborative education more suitable than other approaches? And, for what learners is it perhaps ill-suited?
3. Under what circumstances is collaborative education a preferred method or mode of instruction for teachers?

Situational considerations

In much of what we call adult education (e.g. adult basic education, private sector training, continuing professional education, military training, etc.), the sponsoring agency or organization has preferred ways of planning and conducting its programs. Often, there is a set curriculum, with established ways of delivering the content and rather authoritarian (pedagogical?) ways of evaluating success. Very few planning or management decisions are shared with the learners. And yet, these institutions continue to be successful in providing educational or training programs through non-collaborative modes. It is quite defensible to suggest that it would be inappropriate to conduct many of these programs in a collaborative mode; circumstances mitigate against that.

Learner considerations

Amidst the flood of literature on learning styles there is confusion and contradiction. Yet, over the past thirty-five years, a convincing body of evidence has established cognitive style, particularly Field Dependence-Independence (FD-I), as a pattern of individual differences that may bear on this question.

Cognitive style is a qualitative aspect of intellectual functioning related to how an individual perceives the world and solves problems pertaining to those perceptions. Field Dependence-Independence has been the most rigorously studied of all cognitive style constructs (Staugaitis, 1978) and in broad terms is a description of psychological differentiation. It has been termed the "global vs articulated field approach". (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981, p. 56) The global approach is more characteristic of field dependence; the articulated approach is associated with field independence.

Field-dependent people tend to:

- lack a well-developed sense of their own identity and separateness from others; (Spotts & Mackler, 1967, p. 241)
- be dominated by the salient environmental cues; (Goodenough, 1976, p. 675)
- react more to external reinforcers than intrinsic motivation; (ibid)
- sample the opinions of others in making decisions; (ibid)
- accept problems as defined by others rather than impose their own structure; (Cross, 1977, p. 123)
- lack independence and autonomy; (ibid)
- prefer a spectator approach to learning; (ibid)
- prefer learning situations and materials to be organized and structured; (Even, 1982, p. 15)

Field-independent people tend to:

- have a highly developed sense of their own self-identity (and are) regarded by others as socially more independent...ready...to function with little environmental support; (Spotts & Mackler, 1967, p. 675)
- sample widely from environmental cues; (Goodenough, 1976, p. 675)
- work best under intrinsic motivation; (ibid)
- be less effected by the manner in which material is presented; (Even, 1982, p. 15)

A picture emerges of individuals with strong tendencies toward FD being less self-directing in their learning, wanting more structure and guidance from an instructor, and not preferring the independence that may be required in collaborative modes of education, unless there is sufficient structure and guidance provided.

Individuals tending towards FI seem to be quite capable of handling the demands of collaborative education but may not want to "waste" the time discussing process issues. In fact, it may be the individuals scoring near the middle of the continuum, with a balance of qualities from both FD and FI, that are best suited to collaborative education. It warrents testing.

Instructor considerations

Research on teacher effectiveness has shown the importance of judgement and decision-making on the ultimate effectiveness of an instructor (Shavelson & Stern, 1981) But, at the moment, adult education lacks a clear picture of how and when instructors decide to use (or not use) collaborative modes of education and with what effect. Certainly, situational factors enter into their decision and possibly learner differences are considered too. But teachers also vary in experience, personality, confidence, training, and preference for ways of working. Each of these variables enter into an instructor's decision to plan and conduct a program in particular ways, use an instructional technique, or involve learners in any part of the process. Given the conditions that press on an instructor when preparing and presenting a program, it is reasonable to assume that all of these factors could enter into the decision whether to use collaborative means or not. Those reasons may ultimately bear on the effectiveness of instruction and are worthy of careful investigation.

CONCLUSIONS

In reviewing the evaluation of the concept of andragogy, and examining distortions and assumptions that have emerged, it has become clear that any view of andragogy as a model parallel to pedagogy must, by design, set the two models in competition with each other. Whether they are posited as dichotomous, mutually exclusive models, or opposite ends of a spectrum, one is left with the necessity of choosing one or the other, but not both. Yet, a great many circumstances warrent a mix of instructional roles and models of instruction. In comparison to works that consider several teaching models (e.g. Joyce & Weil, 1980) a choice of only two is discouragingly shallow.

Further, the polarizing of andragogy and pedagogy has exaggerated the differences between adult education and youth education, minimized the differences between adults as learners, and stretched the concept of andragogy into a prescription for teaching without due regard for situational, learner, and instructor variables. To quote Knowles (1980) once more:

> an ideological pedagogue—one who has a deep loyalty and commitment to the pedagogical model--may be tempted to underrate the extent to which an andragogical assumption may be realistic... (p. 43)

With apologies to Malcolm, the oposite could be said today. We need to have equal concern for the unwarrented development of ideological andragogues--who with deep loyalty and commitment to the andragogical model--may be tempted to overrate the extent to which andragogical assumptions and techniques may be realistic.

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EDUARD LINDEMAN: SELF-DIRECTED LEARNER
(1885 - 1953)

Edward J. Rielly[1]

Abstract

The life and work of Eduard Lindeman can be seen as exemplifying the concept of self-directed learning defined as either mode of learning or as process of personal transformation.

The biographer, like the novelist, is faced with a difficult task—the challenge to make order out of chaos. He is charged with finding in a mass of facts, actions and patterns of behavior which will contribute to a consistent explanation of the overall life of his subject. He does not simply narrate, he interprets as well, and there has always been a tendency for biographers to select in order to interpret—to select and perhaps even to invent. "The real current of the hero's existence" (Woolf, 1967) is what the biographer has to record— a recreation of "personality" as distinct from a life which consists of "actions" and "works." The inescapable characteristics of personality, its irrationality and its variety, are a direct challenge to the orderly task of the biographer. The reconstruction of one human life is inextricably linked with the priorities and assumptions of the age which produced it.

The early life of Eduard Lindeman has been the subject of much discussion and debate over the years due to a paucity of documentation and the frailty of human recollection. The Lindeman archives at Columbia University cover the years 1911-1953; the Lindeman material in the Social Welfare History Archive, University of Minnesota, contains original material scattered over the years 1932 to 1945. For data on Lindeman's early life we are dependent on secondary sources, namely, his son-in-law who published a brief biographical sketch of his father-in-law in a volume entitled The Democratic Man, and the recollections of Lindeman's surviving children.

Eduard Christian Lindeman was born in St. Clair, Michigan, on May 9, 1885— one of ten children of struggling Danish immigrant parents trying to establish a new life in America. The family by all reports was not prosperous. Orphaned at an early age, Lindeman worked as a farm laborer. As a young man he alternated between jobs in the shipbuilding industry in Port Huron and Detroit, the tunnel under construction between Detroit and Windsor, Ontario, and on the farms of northern Ohio and Michigan (Gessner, 1956, p. 18). A high school diploma was out of the question during these years for young Lindeman.

Then, at age twenty-two Lindeman was accepted at Michigan Agricultural College (now Michigan State University) in East Lansing in a special program admitting "sub-freshmen" conditionally. He later noted that his first year in college was extremely difficult due to his lack of basic skills, He did, however. survive, worked on the college farm, and graduated in 1911 at age twenty-six. He later wrote: "This was a period in my college life (his sophomore year) when I was taking care of thirty cows and several hundred fowl before breakfast for the sole purpose of earning the wherewithal to feed my body" (Lindeman, 1912, p. 5).

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The young Lindeman authored essays, poetry, and a four-act play as an undergraduate. He also wrote editorials for the college paper, The Holcad. At this time he met Hazel Taft, daughter of Professor Taft, Horticultural Department Chair and cousin of William Howard Taft, the twenty-seventh President of the United States. They married in 1912, one year after the groom's graduation, in East Lansing, Michigan.

From 1911 to 1920 there was a rapid succession of jobs for the new graduate. For a short while he was editor of a Michigan agricultural journal, The Gleaner, published in Detroit; then assistant to the minister of the Plymouth Congregational Church in Lansing; 4-H Club extension director based at Michigan Agricultural College; YMCA instructor in Chicago at the Y's George Williams College. At the beginning of 1920, Lindeman moved his wife and four young daughters to the North Carolina College for Women where he had accepted an appointment in the Department of Sociology & Economics.

In 1921, Lindeman published his second book, The Community: An Introduction to the Study of Community Leadership and Organization. After two years of teaching and involvement in community organization work in North Carolina, the Lindeman family moved north to High Bridge, New Jersey, where they lived for the next twenty years. The reasons for Lindeman's leaving the college and North Carolina after such a brief tenure are unclear. According to Gessner, there was an incident with racial overtones fanned by the local Klan involving the Lindeman's black cook having been allowed to have a birthday party in her employer's residence. However, there is no corroborating evidence from independent sources of such an incident, and so we are at a loss to explain definitively the family's departure for New Jersey at this time.

In May 1924 Lindeman published his third book, Social Discovery: An Approach to the Study of Functional Groups. Also, in 1924 he joined the staff of the New York School of Social Work (located at 122 East 22nd Street, N.Y.C.) as professor of Social Philosophy, and here he remained as a faculty member for the next twenty-six years. The school eventually moved uptown and became the Columbia University School of Social Work.

During these years Lindeman established an enduring friendship with a most remarkable woman—Dorothy Whitney Straight—a very wealthy widow with three children, whose first husband died in 1918. In 1925 she married Leonard Elmhirst, and the family moved shortly thereafter to England where they bought a large estate, Dartington Hall, at Totnes, Devon, and established a self-contained community with one of the most progressive schools in England for that day. Lindeman carried on an extensive correspondence with the Elmhirsts at Dartington through these years advising, guiding, and providing a philosophy of education for the new experimental school. In fact, the Elmhirsts held the mortgage on "Greystone," the spacious home in High Bridge where the Lindeman family lived until 1942 when they moved to New York City. Lindeman visited Dartington Hall a number of times during these years, and sent one of his daughters, Betty, to be educated there, 1928-1930.

Now began a most prolific period of publication and professional activity for Lindeman as he settled into life as a New Jersey commuter, and a New York City educator. He began to refine his ideas on adult education, for one thing. For example, in 1925 his thinking had evolved to the point where he saw adult education as

> . . . a co-operative venture in non-authoritarian, informal learning the chief purpose of which is to discover the meaning of experience; a quest of the mind which digs down to the roots of the preconceptions which formulate our conduct; a technique of learning for adults which makes education coterminous with life, and hence elevates living itself to the level of adventurous experiment. (Lindeman, 1925, p. 3)

A year later he publishes his developing ideas on adult education in a monograph published by the Workers Education Bureau of America:

> Adult education differs from other forms of education in three particulars: (a) its aim is to provide for an exchange of vital experience; (b) its method is founded upon the assumption that real education must not have its roots in external authorities but rather in personal experiences with reality; (c) it therefore proceeds by means of a technique of discussion in which the teacher or leader performs the function of guide and stimulator but never that of law-giver. It will be seen at once that adult education must be confined to small groups and that lectures and mass teaching are automatically eliminated (Lindeman, 1926, p. 11).

Lindeman's most widely read book, The Meaning of Adult Education, was published in 1926 after he had settled into his teaching career in New York City. During the next twenty-four years until retirement in 1950, Lindeman authored approximately 204 articles (average length: 3½ pages), 107 book reviews, five books, sixteen monographs, seventeen chapters in other works; edited four books and shared joint authorship of another; and gave at least forty-four talks of which we have some record. He also served on the National Child Labor Commission; was Education Director of the Workers' Education Bureau from 1926 to 1937 and editor of its quarterly journal Workers' Education; director (1935-1938) of the WPA's Department for Community Organization for Leisure; lectured at the New School for Social Research; served as trustee of the New School, Briarcliff Junior College, and Adelphi College; was visiting professor at Temple University (1934-1935), the University of California (1936 and 1938), Stanford University (1941), Columbia University (1941-1942), the University of Wisconsin (1943); advisory editor of the American branch of Penguin Books (1945); educational advisor to the British Army of Occupation in Germany (1946); chair, ACLU Commission on Academic Freedom (1949); visiting professor, University of Delhi, India (1949-1950). He retired from the faculty of the New York School for Social Work in 1950.

However, the final three years of Lindeman's life were not idle years. They were filled with speaking engagements (Texas, Oregon, New York), lectures at the New School, assignments for a consulting group he founded with two old friends, the presidency of the National Conference of Social Work. Eduard Lindeman died in New York City on April 13, 1953 after an illness.

From this brief sketch, the man, Eduard Lindeman, emerges in the words of Ordway Tead as ". . . an observer, recorder, actor and philosophic interpreter (of social change)—all in a mood of sympathy without cynicism." (Tead, 1953, p. 55). His highest earned degree was the baccalaureate, and yet he became an inspired, if somewhat unconventional, teacher and invited lecturer in several top-ranked American universities from New York to California. His early attempts at formal education and subsequent efforts to become an academic were clearly self-directed if one interprets this mode as one of independence, autonomy, and self-motivation. Throughout his professional career Lindeman was more often than not marginal—seen as on the fringe of academia and liberal respectability due partly to lack of credentialing, and partly to his penchant for unpopular causes which oftentimes won him in the public eye the label of "communist," "pinko," "radical liberal," "revolutionary."

If self-directedness is interpreted as process, that is, as a bringing into critical consciousness of previously internalized and unquestioned assumptions, Lindeman once again fits this aspect of self-directed learner. His over-riding objective in life was to challenge many of the taken-for-granted assumptions of adults in everyday living which were really doing violence to democracy and liberty, and to turn them around to effect social change. For him, " . . . adult education is not merely education of adults; adult education is learning associated with social purposes. . . .The complete objective of adult education is to synchronize the democratic and the learning processes. The adult learner is not merely engaged in the pursuit of knowledge; he is experimenting with himself; he is testing his incentives in the light of knowledge; he is, in short, changing his habits, learning to live on behalf of new motivations." (Lindeman, 1937, p. 6).

Eduard Lindeman exemplified these ideas in his own life when time and again he challenged events and institutions in the name of democracy and freedom. In a short statement in a paper written in 1925 entitled "What Is Adult Education?" he sums up this approach quite succinctly:

> I am conceiving adult education in terms of new techniques for learning. . . .It represents a process by which the adult learns to become aware of and to evaluate his experience . . . giving attention to situations in which he finds himself, to problems which include obstacles to his self-fulfillment. (Lindeman, 1925,p.3).

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Between the Wars: Liberalism and the Eclipsing of Conflict in the Framing of Adult Education

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From our history, we know that the years leading up to, through, and immediately following the World Wars were the "golden years" of adult education -- not in terms of numbers enrolled, but its national prominence as a major social movement and educational priority. These were the formative years, the years of the Carnegie funds and support from public subsidies, the heyday of the American Association for Adult Education (AAAE) with its stellar lineup of public personages serving as Presidents of the new Association. Years of hope and optimism, it was the crucial period in the formation of adult education, for it was the time when its institutional character was being established, its knowledge base etched out against the broad backdrop of America's ideological landscape. It was at this time that the objective reality that we now take for granted as the field of adult education was being constructed; with historiocity, as the first generation moved on or out, came institutional typification and crystallization, the basis of the professional era that followed.(1)

During that first generation, conflict abounded over the form that adult education should take. In this paper, I will broadly outline the nature of that conflict and reveal its underlying basis as rooted in the confrontation between the liberal ideology of American Democracy and the perceived threat of socialist thought and practice. My thesis is that socialist thought posed an alternative vision of adult education that was silenced at point of conception -- perhaps even preconception, for the atmosphere was so hostile that the conception could never be named as such. Instead, it is a hidden presence in arguments that occurred over aspects of the perspective. The conflict of the formative years was eclipsed by silencing the voices of a socialist perspective by direct attack upon the very idea of socialism as propaganda leading inevitably to revolution and totalitarianism, as well as by indirect attack, that is, by cutting away at the ideals, premesies and methods that were implicit in the perspective.

I came upon this knowledge unexpectedly. From my study of the history of University Extension in California, I've known that there is much more controversy than that presented in the few published "histories" of the field. Working on a comparative study of the liberal tradition in university adult education in the United States and England, I began to wonder why workers' education has not been a central focus of adult education in the U.S. as it has been in England. Since California had been the site of the first workers' education experiment by a univer-

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sity, I was familiar with some of the issues from the structural perspective of Extension's embeddedness in the institutional context of the University. Key to this understanding is the conflict and eventual accommodation of the competing ideals of academic excellence and public service. In exposing the pressure upon extension to conform to university mandates, it also became clear that there is an underlying commonality -- in ideals and practices -- that enables both to coexist within the same institutional framework. I have named this commonality "elite pragmatism" -- and, curiously, I see it as consistent with the liberal tradition as it has manifest in university adult education. (2) But it seemed that the question of workers' education went deeper than the structural constraints imposed by the university. Certainly this is an important piece of the story, but how to understand the nonpresence of working class education within the broader framework of adult education? As I shifted my focus from the university setting to the national movements for adult education and workers'education, I began to see that the question had ramifications that went far beyond either, for it was the identification of workers' education with socialism that was critical. In the very idea of workers' education lay an approach to education that was in fundamental opposition to the liberal ideology which had been used to legitimize the development and institutionalization of adult education.

My theoretical perspective includes elements of social phenomenology and critical theory. Methodologically, I work with historical documents interpretively. The dialectical approach to research is reflected in what has so far been presented; it is an approach in which there is no clear demarcation among problem, theoretical stance, method, findings and conclusion -- instead these are conceived as integral to a research experience that is at the same time reflexive and projective. The process I use involves opening up the problematic (eg. can one identify a "liberal tradition" in adult education? What is it? How is it Manifest in everyday life? What does it mean symbolically, practically, and dialectically? How is its meaning constructed [a) through what social processes and b) in what nexus of social relationships]? What are the sociallocations of its advocates and challengers?...) I [bracket] only in so far as I can make my presuppositions explicit, challenge them, and take a problematic stance toward them. Acceptance of the inevitability of subjectivity, intersubjectivity, objectification and interpretation is fundamental to the research process. The goal is to develop an interpretation that does not distort the experience of the actors, though our interpretations of that experience may differ. Letting the actors speak for themselves, I work first to explicate the constructions of the actors and to separate my interpretation from theirs.

I am interested in the interaction between relationships of domination and the social construction of reality. Ideology is the key mediating factor between individual consciousness and the ruling apparatus -- the power of ideology is its internalization as the taken-for-granted reality of everyday life; ideology creates the illusion of truth, neutrality and objectivity. My research goal is to illuminate the ideologically taken for granted -- to dereify our social constructions, an essential step in the development of critical consciousness.

For this paper, I draw extensively upon the literature of adult education, especially the publications of the AAAE, but also of the CSLEA, AEA, Worker's Education Bureau and Proceedings of the NUEA. Also critical has been the history I've recently completed of Extension at the University of California in which I combined interviewing with detailed analysis of archival materials.

Unfortunately, limited space allows only the broad outline of interpretation to be presented. The rich primary source materials which provide the evidence can only be alluded to. They are more fully presented in a collaborative study of the liberal tradition in university adult education.(3)

In studying the documents, I was drawn by the attention devoted to the explanation and justification of adult education, the assumption of liberalism, and the ways in which this was accomplished. Key themes, reflecting first the search for symbolic legitimation and then the conflict over the presumed threat to liberal values, jumped out at me. The amount of attention given to the issues, or the frequency of allusion to the issues, were taken as evidence of their importance to the field, if not in terms of the practical realities of everyday operation, certainly in terms of the available professional stock of knowledge. At the final stage of interpretation, I realized the extent to which what I saw operating in adult education could be understood as an example of the legitimation process outlined by Berger and Luckmann in The Social Construction of Reality.

Symbolic Legitimation of Adult Education

Adult education has been symbolically legitimized as a critical component of the trinity -- liberalism, education and democracy. Rather than an articulated philosophy, liberalism has been a spirit and an assumption that permeates adult education thought. The American social context of liberalism has given it a peculiar twist, for within the idealism of the American Democratic experiment, it has taken on egalitarian and pragmatic overtones. As one moves from the symbolic to the cognitive level, the contradictions within the liberal framework become evident. For example, objectivity and neutrality coexist within the subjective frame of American Democracy as the ideal form of government; all views on any issue are to be impartially considered, but not those that are deemed subjective or propagandistic; egalitarian views of social justice coexist with elitist interpretations of excellence; the goal of social reform coexists with a prohibition against social action or conflict; the goal of unity and consensus with values of freedom and tolerance.

More than a particular set of values, the opposite of which is often present within the liberal framework, liberalism might be thought of, in characteristically unsophisticated American fashion, as the spirit "to do good." This spirit is captured by Paul Sheats in his 1953 presidential address to the AEA when he remarked, "Let's face it friends, we are a 'do-good' movement."(4) At the same time, adult education has been legitimized symbolically in terms of ideals that are inherent within the liberal tradition. Significantly, the particular set of ideals used to legitimize adult education have enabled it to straddle the tension within liberalism between idealism and pragmatism, between elitism and egalitarianism.

The key to democracy, adult education is crucial to its realization, implementation, and survival. Symbolically, the 10th Anniversary publication of the AAAE is entitled Adult Education and Democracy. In his lead essay, Charles Beard, President of the AAAE, articulates the egalitarian interpretation of this connection as meaning "all men and women...all branches of knowledge...all conceptions and interpretations... all expounders..."(5) In the same volume, Everett Dean Martin expresses his alarm at the threat to liberalism: "It does not come, as we have thought, from the wealthy and powerful man, eager to guard and preserve his special privileges; it comes from the man on the street for whose rights liberalism has struggled -- from the unhappy, harassed, propaganda-regimented common man. It comes from the man who is not genuinely concerned with civilization."(6) -- a subtle but significant elitist twist. The egalitarian view has been manifest more in the idea of knowledge as power; the elitist has been more concerned about social control. Whereas Lindeman would argue that the task of adult education was to socialize knowledge and power, James Earl Russell, President of the AAAE for the first four years of its history, advocated non-partisanship through voluntary standardization and vocational efficiency.(7,8) As democracy was perceived to be threatened in the period under consideration, social control became more important, not in those terms, but as non-partisan and "middle-of-the road;" at the same time adult education was called upon to explicitly serve democracy through Americanization and citizenship education, support of industrial development and manpower training. According to Morse Cartwright, head of the Carnegie program in adult education and executive director of the AAAE, "If the ultimate ends of adult education are to be reached, the Association which represents the movement must be directly middle of the road..."(9)

Equality of opportunity is central to the American liberal framework in which equality has been assumed to be a function of a liberal political process rather than an economic problem. Our ideology of America as a land of unlimited opportunity glossed over structural inequalities and permitted the merger of an egalitarian political ideology with a hierarchically structured economic system. The transition in thought from equality as a social goal to equality of opportunity is significant in shifting attention from the idea of equality of condition as a right, to the idea of individual opportunity to change one's condition. Psychological research into adult learning in WWI provided scientific proof that some adults are capable of learning well into their 50's. Thorndike's work was critical in differentiating learners from dullards and establishing the ideas of motivation and capacity as the essential qualifiers of equality of opportunity, providing a "scientific" basis for a more elitist reinterpretation of the meaning of equality.(10) Note the irony in that historic document in the promotion of "mass" adult education, the Truman Commission Report: "The Goal -- Equal Opportunity"..."Equal educational opportunity for all persons, to the maximum of their individual abilities...is a goal of American Democracy. Only an informed, thoughtful, tolerant people can maintain and develop a free society. Equal opportunity for education does not mean equal or identical education for all individuals. It means, rather, that education at all levels shall be available equally to every qualified person."(11)

At the less abstract symbolic levels are the notions of service and quality which have served as a bridge between the the world of everyday practice and the symbolic world of democracy and equality. Each has been crucial to the legitimation of adult education, particularly in the university setting. The marginality of adult education has meant that it has had to survive by serving the interests of the institution upon which it is beholden, and this, in turn, has been legitimized as serving the interests of democracy, at times very directly, and at other times indirectly, for example through promoting excellence in learning opportunities, or through providing for worker retraining. Service is operationalized in the form of "needs assessment" and learner control, as well as the idea that subject matter is incidental to process. It is often seen to be in direct contradiction to the ideal of excellence; in the university the enforcment of academic standards has been the means used to control adult education. However inconsistent they may be in practice, service and quality have been brought together as the means to survival and they have reinforced the more conservative tendencies in adult education through its dependence upon dominant, external definitions of "correct" action.

Delegitimation of Socialism -- Liberalism as Ideology

Despite contradictions within it, the liberal-democratic symbolic universe of adult education did not become problematic until challenged by the alternative version of reality stimulated by socialist theory. The battle between the socialistic and liberal conceptions of adult education was fought in the arena of worker's education. Significantly, socialism as such would not be discussed as an alternative perspective in the published literature of adult education; instead the conflict took shape over various ideas that were integral to the socialist perspective -- the ideas of class, separatism, propaganda, social action and social reconstruction. Building upon one another, these ideas are interconnected into a whole that transcends their individual components; I am loosely calling that whole socialism, but it seems that these components would have to be integral to any adult education approach which puts forth a minority viewpoint, for social reconstruction is dependent upon establishing an alternative social base, an alternative view of reality.

Berger and Luckmann maintain that when a rival conception of reality challenges the dominant conception, it will be liquidated. Nihilation is accomplished by: 1) denying the reality of the rival conception, assigning it inferior ontological status and a "not-to-be-taken-seriously cognitive status"; and 2) incorporating the deviant conception, by translating it into terms from the dominant universe. Conflict may take place at the theoretical level, but its outcome will be decided by the relative power base of the competing definitions. As the taken for granted becomes problematic, it must discredit and neutralize, clarify its own stance in relationship to its concrete power base -- with the attachment of idea to power, the dominant conception is solidified as ideology, generating the solidarity necessary to control the rival conception.

This process of legitimation, nihilation and ideolization captures the nature of the conflict in the formative years of adult education. The Carnegie Commission, leaders of the AAAE, and heads of the most influential adult education programs in the country were at the forefront in the articulation of the liberal ideology. In opposition were the early proponents of worker's education, many of them women, and a few independent thinkers, most noteworthy of whom were Charles Beard and Eduard Lindeman, who, to his dying day would be "accused" of socialism and atheism. The key ideas of the socialist -- or left-liberal, as Lindeman preferred -- perspective which were liquidated, translated and incorporated into what would become the liberal ideology of adult education are:

1) Class: The fundamental idea of class structure is deemed inappropriate in America, the land of opportunity, hence there is no class consciousness; all hope in middle class
2) Separatism: Inimical to mass education, equal opportunity
3) Propaganda: Left thought is propagandistic, harmful, in fundamental oppostion to education, truth, objectivity.
4) Social Action: Antagonistic to deliberation, must be separate from education, individual choice, not collective decision.
5) Social Reconstruction: An illusion, dependent on revolution
6) Socialism: Revolutionary destruction leading to totalitarianism.

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I TITLE

'A Comparative Study of Mature and Young School Leaver Applicants to First (Bachelor) Degree Courses at British universities (1974-80) With Implications for the 1980s'

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II Introduction - Statement of Problem

The British higher education system is one of the most restrictive and selective - or as its critics would argue - one of the most elitist systems in Western Europe; in 1980 only 13% of the 18 year old group leaving high school went on to higher education.

Provision for first-degree (Bachelor) study in Britain is available at several different kinds of institution; these comprise 51 universities, 30 'quasi' universities called polytechnics and some 60 or so other higher education colleges. The majority of students studying for a Bachelor degree do so on a full-time basis for a three-year or four-year period. For a number of reasons provision for part-time study within the system is limited and within universities almost non-existent outside London.[1] For adults to obtain a degree, therefore, they must study on a full-time basis unless they study through the Open University, an institution established in 1971 specifically for adults in which instruction is by means of distance learning through correspondence tuition and the media.

In the early 1970s there was widespread interest in making higher education institutions more accessible to adults. This was further stimulated by the appearance of a Government Discussion Paper in 1978 entitled 'Higher Education into the 1990s'.[2] This drew attention to demographic changes which would lead to a considerable fall in the number of qualified 18 year olds coming forward for higher education in the late 1980s. It proposed five ways of overcoming the problem among which the fifth, (Model E), attracted great attention. According to this Model significant changes in the pattern and composition of the higher education student body might occur in the 1980s - priority, for instance, could be given to those who had missed higher education opportunities at normal entry age. The Paper recognised that substantial changes of far-reaching social importance are involved in this 'Model' and that 'the resource implications are great'. Portentously too, it admitted that 'it is unlikely that any of the developments envisaged would happen without a major lead from Government'.

Such a lead was not forthcoming. The Report marked the high point of interest in the fortunes of adult students for in the following year the fortunes of the universities themselves were to change dramatically as a result of Government policy, as will be detailed later. There is no specific policy relating to adult students, their fortunes are the outcome of general policy relating to and determined by wider issues. This paper explores what has happened and is happening to potential undergraduate adult students as a result of the economic recession and public expenditure limitations. The

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paper compares and contrasts adult students entering British universities in 1980 with those students who entered as young school leavers with regard to sex, subject choice, qualifications, chance of acceptance, and academic performance. It also looks at the trends in demand from both groups in the period 1974-80 and indicates certain factors which will affect this demand as a result of the present higher education strategy.

III Methodology

The paper is based on four separate studies carried out by the author (two of them with other colleagues) between 1977 and 1982.

All entrants to British universities have to complete an application form which is submitted to the Universities Central Council for Admissions*. The main body of the paper is based on analyses of the 147,248 applicants (78,939 of whom were accepted) who completed such a form.(3)

The section on student experiences is taken from an in depth study of some 400 adult students at the University of Sheffield(4) studying for a degree in 1978 and the section on academic performance was also based on these students and a separate study of 359 adult students who entered British universities in 1981 without the normal entry qualifications.(5)

IV Results

Adult students in this study are those students who were aged 21 or over in the October of the year in which they registered for a degree course. They shall be referred to as mature students from this point on as this is a term in common use in Britain.

A. Demand

(i) Age

Over the period 1974 to 1980 there was a steady increase in demand for university places both from young school leavers (30% increase) and from mature students (39%). The increase in demand was particularly marked among students over 30 years of age (65%). Many factors contributed to the upsurge of interest and desire for education among adults in the 1960s and 1970s but it received a setback in the late 1960s as a result of Government curbs in public expenditure which affected higher education institutions and junior colleges. This is reflected in the demand for university places from mature students, applications from them increased by 9.5% from 1974 to 1977 but only by 2.7% between 1977 and 1980. In 1979 demand fell for the first time in two decades and in the following year it fell a further 10% at a time when demand from young school leavers increased by 3%.

(ii) Sex

Demand from women grew much more rapidly than that from men over the period in question. Whilst applications from young male school leavers increased by 21% and from male adults by 28% comparable figures for women were 48% and 66%. Nevertheless, women are still 'under-represented'. In the university population as a whole women comprise about 40% of the total but among applicants in the 21 to 25 year old age group 30% whereas 45% of applicants in the 25 to 40 year old age group are female.

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* Three Scottish universities are not part of the UCCA scheme and to that extent the results do not entirely represent the total British university first year population.

(iii) Student choice

Demand for places is highest in 'social, administrative and business studies' both among school leavers (27%) and mature students (31%). 'Arts' comes next as a category with 22% and 19% respectively.

A surprising feature is the relatively high demand from adult students to read medical sciences. No fewer than 14% of adults wish to study a subject in this category (medicine, dentistry and health of which medicine forms by far the major part). This is a greater proportion even than that for better qualified school leavers - 10.5%. It is fairly common knowledge that the demand for places to study medicine and dentistry far exceeds the places available and that qualifications for entry are high. It is difficult to explain therefore why so many adults should choose to study such subjects.

Table 1 below provides a more detailed breakdown of student choice. Medicine heads the list as the most popular subject among both groups of student. Law takes second place and English fourth for both groups of student. It was not expected that electrical engineering would be the third most popular choice among mature students and a further surprise is that sociology is only fifth among adult students and as low as twentieth among school leavers.

Nearly one in three applications in sociology is from a mature student; in psychology it is one in four and in medicine one in six. In contrast applications from adults to read history, geography and modern languages form only a small proportion of applications for places; seemingly history, geography and modern languages have considerably less appeal for adults than they do for school leavers.

Table 1
Applications: distribution of students among subjects, 1980

Rank Order	Subject		Applications	
	Conventional Students	Mature Students	Conventional Students	Mature Students
1	Medicine	Medicine	7993	1563
2	Law	Law	7082	1127
3	Mathematics	Electrical engineering	6538	992
4	English	English	6261	772
5	Modern Languages	Sociology	5231	736
6	Electrical engineering	Mathematics	4537	719
			37642	5909

B. Provision

(i) Age

The rate of increase in acceptance of mature students has not kept pace with the rate of increase. Whilst demand from mature students increased by 39% over the period 1974-80 acceptances went up by only 31%; the respective figures for school leavers were 31% and 41%.

With regard to individual subjects, significant differences are found between the distribution of accepted mature students among the subjects compared with the distribution of applications according to subject. Sociology heads the list whereas it was only fifth in the rank order for applications. Significantly, medicine drops from first in rank order of applications to seventh in acceptances and law from second to sixth. Electrical engineering and English remain high being second and fourth respectively.

(ii) Sex

It has already been stated that the provision of places for mature students has not kept pace over the years with applications; in this respect men fare worse than women as can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2
1974-80

	(a) Percentage change in applications	(b) Percentage change in acceptances	(b)/(a)
Men			
School leavers	21%	37%	1.80
Mature students	28%	20%	0.7
Women			
School leavers	48%	47%	0.98
Mature students	66%	53%	0.8

(iii) Chance of acceptance

A measure of the chance of success of acceptance is given by dividing the number of applications for a given group. In 1980 mature students had an overall 'chance' of 0.42 compared to 0.55 for school leavers; mature men did worse than their female counterparts (0.38 compared to 0.45).

With regard to individual subjects the greatest disparities between mature student success and school leaver success were found in medicine (respective figures 0.18 and 0.39) and engineering (0.37 and 0.58). The chance of success in acceptance of an adult studies varies with age. In the social sciences and in arts students in the 30-40 age group do best but in science, engineering and medical sciences the chance diminishes with age.

C. Quality

The minimum entry qualification to British universities is a pass in at least two subjects at the Advanced Level of the General Certificate of Education examination. This examination is normally taken at the age of 18 at the end of High School by the minority of children who stay on at school beyond the age of 16. It may also be taken by children of 18 who have left school to go to junior college or at any subsequent age as an adult.

Young school leavers are accepted by universities on the basis of two or more 'A' levels taken at school. Adults entering university after the age of 21 may be accepted on the basis of their 'A' level qualifications gained at school or later in life or accepted because they have some other recognised qualification. These qualifications gained after leaving school are usually of a technical or vocational nature related to such professional areas as engineering, nursing, police or teacher education. A few candidates are accepted without qualifications having suitably demonstrated their ability to profit from the course at interview and by written essays. Thus the 'door' is never entirely closed to the adult who left school without qualifications and who for one reason or another has never acquired them later in life.

The 'quality' of a candidate is measured not only by the number of 'A' level passes but also by the 'grade' achieved. These come in five categories A, B, C, D and E earning respectively 5, 4, 3, 2 or 1 points; an 'average' candidate is one who has passes at 'C' grade in three subjects (i.e. a total score of 9 points) whilst an 'exceptional' candidate would have grades such as AAC or ABB i.e. 13 or more points.

Over 90% of school-leavers entering universities have 2 or more 'A' levels whereas only 51% of mature students have any 'A' level qualifications. Furthermore, the proportion of mature students with 'A' levels diminishes with age; of candidates between 21 and 25 years of age three out of five students have 'A' levels whereas only 17% of those aged 40 or over have such qualifications. School leavers also have better 'scores' than do mature students. 21% of the former have a score of 13+ compared to only 7% of adults. Again, younger adults seem to be better qualified than do older students; the proportions in the age group 21 to 25 having scores 13+ and 9+ are 9% and 33% respectively compared to 3% and 6% in the 40 and over age groups.

It was not possible to make comparisons between the quality of mature students and school leavers in individual subjects but it was possible to compare the quality of students overall between one subject and another. There is great variation in the number of students who have high grades as between one subject and another. In medicine, for instance, 54% of students have a score of 13+ and in law and classics 33% and 32% have such a score. In contrast, it is true of a number of subjects that only small proportions of students have such high scores; in certain arts subjects 6% only have a score of 13+ and in business management and sociology the proportions are 4% and 2% respectively. Some 'Mean' grade scores are: veterinary studies 13.9 (demand for places rocketed after a highly successful TV series based on the daily life of a veterinary surgeon), medicine 12.7, law 11.6, business and management studies 9.8, production engineering 8.8, sociology 7.9.

D. Academic Performance

A survey at Sheffield University revealed that 35% of mature students obtained 'good' degrees. (Roderick et al 1981). This was almost identical to the proportion of school leaver entrants (36%) who obtained good degrees. Rather more adults than school leavers (11% compared to 8.5%) obtained poor degrees or failed. These figures apply to arts, social sciences and natural sciences. Numbers of mature students in medicine and technology were small but the evidence indicated that adults do not do as well as young students.

It is difficult to come to any firm conclusion from British studies[6] about the comparative examination performance of the two groups of students as evidence from them appears to be conflicting. Many of the studies carried out to date have been with small groups of students or are related to a single subject discipline only. However, most of the recent British studies do indicate that maturity may be an advantage whereas in medicine and technology older students may be at a disadvantage.

It was stated earlier that a small number of adult candidates who do not have two 'A' level passes or other 'recognised qualifications' are accepted by universities according to 'special procedure' regulations based on interviews, specially designed tests or essays. In 1980 of the 7183 adult students accepted by British universities some 2% were in this category. In a study of such students (Roderick et al 1982) the author found that they appeared not to perform so well academically either as young adults or as adults who enter with proper pre-qualifications. A conclusion of the study was that unqualified adult entrants require special tutorial and other attention which is not at present provided within universities.

V Conclusions and Implications

British universities have experienced dramatic and sudden shocks in the wake of the tide of expansion in the 1960s and early 1970s. Between 1979 and 1983 Government funds to the universities were cut by some 11% (phased over three years) leading to a reduction of students of 5%. In late 1983 the Secretary of State for Education invited the universities to join in an open and wide-ranging debate about the reshaping of the university system on the basis that 'unit of resource' i.e. financial support per student would be reduced by 2% in real terms in each of the next five years and up to 1% in each of the following five years. Furthermore, it is anticipated that demographic changes will lead to a reduction of numbers in higher education by up to a quarter by the mid 1990s.

All this paints a gloomy picture for adult students. Throughout the 1970s their situation gradually improved but the evidence of this paper suggests a check in demand in 1980 and a significant fall in the following year. The recession, the impact of public expenditure cuts and uncertainties over employment undoubtedly have all been factors in this decline in demand for university places from mature students. But it is probably true too that adults, knowing of the 'squeeze' on universities turned instead to other institutions of higher education. However, these institutions are also now suffering and as the universities and the higher education system generally contract during the next decade things are likely to get more difficult rather than easier for mature students.

Another aspect of Government policy which is likely to affect mature students is the projected swing to science and technology. Greater than average cuts are to be imposed in arts, social studies and biological sciences whereas numbers are to be increased in medicine, physical sciences, engineering and other technologies. Overall it means a drift from a distribution of students in 1979/80 of arts 50, science 41 and medicine 9 to arts 48, science 42 and medicine 10 by the end of 1984.

Such a shift will work against the interests of adult students. Due to factors inherent in the school system and junior colleges and the strong non-vocational ethos of the adult education system the demand for university undergraduate education from adult students is very much greater in the arts and social sciences than it is in the physical sciences and technologies; in

1980 whilst the distribution of school leaver applicants 50:40:10 was in line with the intended shape of the university population that of adult students was 56:31:13. The physical sciences and technologies are areas in which adult education agencies have not yet learnt how to prepare adults and assist them to gain entry into universities to nearly the same extent as they have in arts and social sciences.

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PARTICIPATION IN AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION IN THE IRISH REPUBLIC: A STATISTICAL SURVEY

Alan Rogers[1]

INTRODUCTION

1. Reason for the Survey

The difficulty of obtaining an adequate statistical base for the preparation of a development plan for adult education has been experienced in many countries. The problem arises from many factors, of which the following are perhaps the most important:

--the difficulty of defining adult and continuing education;

--the multitude of agencies, formal and informal, involved in providing some form of structured learning situation for adults.

All attempts at surveying provision (i.e. from the "top down") have been less that successful in being comprehensive; whole categories of provision are often ignored or accidentally omitted.(1) On the other hand, a "bottom-up" survey of participation in adult education can only result in a randomly selected representative sample of adult education.

The Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education (ACACE) in England and Wales undertook both sorts of surveys and published the results.(2) Of the two, it is widely agreed that methodologically and in its results, the random household sample survey was the more satisfactory (and incidentally cheaper!). The surveys were conducted as part of the accumulation of evidence needed for the preparation of the main ACACE Report.(3)

The Adult Education Commission for the Republic of Ireland, in the course of the preparation of its report (4), agreed to commission a similar household sample survey, using much the same questionnaire as that for the United Kingdom, so that findings are more or less comparable.

2. Nature of the Survey

The United Kingdom Survey was of 3,600 households; a high refusal rate resulted in 2,448 valid responses. The Irish survey of 1,000 households resulted in a response quota of 809 households. Sampling in both cases was done on the Kish Random Selection Method. The Irish survey also obtained an annual participation rate, not available in the United Kingdom Survey. The questionnaires were administered by a Market Research organization. The sample population differed somewhat from that in England and Wales, being all adults over the age of 16 (the school-leaving age) who are not still in some form of full-time initial education; the United Kingdom sample was 17-75 and included those still in full-time initial education.

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3. Major Findings

The results of the United Kingdom and the Irish surveys are very extensive, and only the most significant have been listed below:

Pending the publication of the full report, this paper must be regarded as an interim report and its findings as subject to review.

(a) Nature of Society

Ireland is a relatively young population (42% of the adult population falls between the ages of 35 and 64 as against 49% in England and Wales); it has a substantial number (37%, as against 17% in the United Kingdom) of single persons, both men and women, half of whom are not gainfully employed; it has a working class amounting to some 40% of the whole (28% in the United Kingdom); it has substantially more women than men (45% men; 55% women; 49% men; 51% women in the United Kingdom); and its family size is in general larger. There are fewer persons with part-time occupation and thus more persons with no paid occupation.

(b) Educational Background

Large sections of the adult population of Ireland have experienced no formal education other than the most elementary of schooling, and for more than a third of them, this was completed at the age of 14 or less. On the other hand, more of the adult population have stayed on until a later age than in the United Kingdom--34% stayed on until the age of 17 or older as against 22% in England and Wales. Clearly this is age-related: half of all those aged between 45 and 64 left school at or before the age of 14 as against 8% of those under 25.

Again, it is related to social class: 55% of social categories DE left school at 14 or under and 64% left as early as they were allowed to; on the other hand, 84% of categories AB stayed on beyond their 16th year and 90% beyond the statutory age of compulsory schooling. Further, it is related to location; rural dwellers have in general had less formal education than urban dwellers. More than 90% of the sample completed their initial education in school, 44% at primary or national school.

Just over 20% have taken no examinations at all, but this is lower than in the United Kingdom where the figure is 44%. Of those who have taken the (School-) leaving Certificate, 73% come from social categories AB, 69% from those under 24 years of age, and only 19% from rural areas. A quarter of all respondents claimed that they were unhappy at school.

(c) Attitudes Towards Education, Life Situation and Work

When a series of statements were scored on a positive-negative scale, it is clear that in general strongly positive attitudes towards education are widely held amongst the adult population. Only 11% of the total sample felt that education was not important; more of these were to be found in social categories C2, DE and F and amongst the older age groups than in the rest of the adult population. Even two-thirds of all those who have never taken any form of adult education since completing their initial education place a high value on education.

Respondents who were not studying at the time of the survey were asked whether their families, friends and workmates would help or hinder them if they were to pursue a course of study. Very few (3%) felt that other members of their families would "make difficulties", and most (especially in social categories AB and amongst the under 25s) anticipated positive encouragement and support. Again, very few people (less than 3%) felt that their friends would be disapproving or (2%) that their workmates would be hostile, and virtually none felt that their employer would be opposed to their engaging in such an activity.

(d) Awareness of Education

More than a quarter of the sample population did not know if there were educational opportunities available to adults in their region. More of the older persons, social categories DE and F, rural and large city dwellers were ignorant of these opportunities, while those who were in categories AB, aged between 25 and 34 years, living in households with children, those who stayed on at school beyond the statutory minimum leaving age and the residents of small towns were the best informed.

The statutory educational bodies rather than the voluntary bodies were regarded as the main providers of courses and source of information; contact with the schooling system seems to be a vital element in awareness of education. It is worrying that more of those over 45, rural dwellers, social categories DE and F or those without children did not know where to go to find out information about courses.

There is considerable ignorance about adult access to education and even about elementary factors such as the cost of courses (consistently overestimated and felt to be beyond the reach of many non-participant respondents), though 80% of the sample felt that the courses would be worth the sums they mentioned. Fifty-seven percent believed that post-school education should be subsidized in one way or another; 42% felt that participants should pay all the costs themselves, and another 33% that participants should pay part of the cost. A quarter, however, felt that the state and/or industry should cover all the costs rather than the participants.

When asked about their views as to who attended adult education classes, most people seem to have answered in terms of categories other than their own, except in respect of gender (i.e. more men felt that more men attended classes, whereas women tended to choose women as participants).

It is thus significant that older respondents tended to choose younger persons; social categories DE and F chose AB and C, rural dwellers chose urban dwellers and working housewives chose non-working housewives. This is not always true; more respondents who were single, middle-class, middle-aged and well-educated tended to select their own categories, whereas those who were educationally underprivileged chose categories other than their own. The general picture of adult education classes is that they appeal to younger persons, the middle classes, to office workers rather than factory or farm workers, to single persons, town dwellers and housewives who do not have outside employment.

(e) Participation in Adult Education

Three-quarters of the adult population (73.7%) sampled in our survey do not believe that they have ever participated in any form of education since completing their initial education. Of the rest, nearly 16% have engaged in some adult education course in the last 3 years (current participants) and another 11% at some earlier stage in their adult lives (past participants); this compares with 20% current participants, 26% past participants and 51% non-participants of England and Wales (note: the reason why current participants exceed past participants in Ireland is almost certainly due to the appointment of adult education organizers and other agencies throughout the country, about 1980). An annual participant rate of 11% in 1982 was obtained from a supplementary survey taken early in 1983.

One-third of current participants had taken more than one course during the three years under review. Sixty percent of all courses taken were work-related, but most of these were not held at the workplace. The most frequent courses taken were in technical subjects, business/commercial subjects, than sports and pasttimes, arts and domestic subjects. Despite this, the reason given most often for doing a course was "I just wanted to learn more about the subject" (50%), rather than "I needed training .... for my job" (18%).

(f) Profile of Participants

Current participants were drawn proportionately more from women, from younger persons (under 35), from single persons than from other sectors of the adult population; more of them come from those with older children (but not young children), from social categories AB and C1, from those in full-time work and from those who are already relatively better educated in terms of the length of schooling, "staying on" beyond the earliest possible school-leaving age (82%), examinations taken (91%) and post-school education. City dwellers predominate; rural dwellers attend relatively rarely.

(g) Self-directed Learning

A total of two-thirds of all respondents indicated that they had taken up some form of self-directed learning during the past year. Most of these (41%) were in the form of following a broadcast programme of learning; for others, it was do-it-yourself programmes (29%) or planned visits to places of interest (19%). Once again, these activities were predominant amongst those aged 35-44, social categories AB and C1, and those with children in the household; those in rural areas did not engage in self-learning so often as those in towns and cities. Participants in adult education programmes were heavily engaged in some other form of learning.

Forty-one percent of the sample were members of some form of voluntary body. Women participated much less frequently than men (sports clubs and credit unions). The most frequent members of voluntary organizations were those aged 35-44, members of social categories AB, married persons with children and those who lived in city areas.

(h) Interest in Adult Education

Only a quarter of the adult population of Ireland (as against 46%) of the United Kingdom adult population regret that they did not continue their schooling; this probably reflects the larger numbers in Ireland who did stay on. Forty-three percent say that they would like to have followed some course at some earlier stage in their life. Finance and domestic situations are the two main expressed barriers to participation.

Just over a half say that they would be keen to learn some new subject. Thirty percent wish to do a course now, "more for interest than for my job" (61% in the United Kingdom). But only 11% would like a job-related programme and 8% (25% in the United Kingdom) would like a course after retirement.

Those who expressed a desire for some sort of course are more women than men; large numbers of employed persons; very substantially those with children; those in city areas; and those who have already participated in adult education. Nevertheless 44% of all those who have so far not participated in adult education have expressed a desire to pursue some courses of study in a subject which interests them.

Those who show no signs of interest in any form of adult education contain more men, more of the self-employed, retired and unemployed, more of those without children, more from small towns and rural areas and more of social categories DE and F. A half of all non-participants knew of courses in their area but still did not attend.

Eighty-two percent of all those who expressed a desire for a course claimed that they would wish to do it for personal interest or for work in the home; only 17 percent wanted to study work-related subjects.

4. Conclusions

The picture presented is a static one; trends are only rarely seen.

The adult population of Ireland, especially those in rural areas and in social categories DE and F, has in general a low level of educational achievement; it lacks that middle tier of schooling which is stronger in the United Kingdom. But the general attitude towards education is on the whole positive.

Participation in adult education is very low. The APR is 11%; only 27% of the adult population have experienced any formal adult education--three-quarters on their own admission have done no form of systematized and supervised learning since leaving school.

There are however few signs of two distinct cultural nations; the interests of those who participate are similar to those of the non-participant sector of the adult population. But there are gorwing signs of two distinct educational nations; those who have had better educational opportunities participate more frequently and desire to take courses more strongly than those who are already educationally disadvantaged.

The blocks which bar participation are attitudes and images rather than inadequate or inaccessible provision. It is clear that the presence of children in the household is a powerful factor in encouraging participation--perhaps an indication of the strength of the link between the concept of education and children. There is a significant dichotomy between what people say they want (courses for interest) and what they practice (attendance at work-related programmes).

5. Implications

Faced with the needs of an adult population inadequately educated to meet current economic and social needs, the temptation is to increase and make more accessible existing provision. This must of course be done, especially in relation to social categories DE and F and rural dwellers. But the research suggests that even if new provision is made, take-up will be slow; what needs to be tackled are the imates of and attitudes towards adult education.

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2. ACACE, Adults: Their Educational Experience and Needs (1982); ACACE, Post-Initial Education in the North West of England: a survey of provision (1983).
3. ACACE, Continuing Education: from Policies to Practice (1981).
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A STUDY OF CAREER PATTERNS, PROFESSIONAL MOBILITY AND JOB SATISFACTION LEVELS AMONG PUBLIC SCHOOL ADULT EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS IN INDIANA

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INTRODUCTION

The need for research in adult education has been and continues to be widely recognized (Essert, 1953; Brunner, 1959; Hendrickson, 1960; Lindeman, 1961; Kreitlow, 1965; Heimstra, 1976; & Rubeson, 1982). Both research and theory development, which appear to be the prime foundational characteristics of accepted disciplines, have been the challenge of adult education leaders since the 1920's (Kreitlow, 1970 & Rubenson, 1982). Rubenson (1982) in particular decries the lack of critical research studies where the aim is to analyze the prerequisites for developing adult education in a certain desired way. Knowles (1972), in assessing neglected topics from his perspective as an adult education professor, outlined a series of "knowledge gaps" which he considered in need of research attention. His list, which consisted of specific research topics, included ten major areas. The topic most relevant to this study was the perceived need to more precisely understand the developmental process of the adult educator.

While there has been preliminary work done on the skills and content necessary to adequately train adult educators (Daniel & Rose, 1982), and on adult education faculty characteristics, satisfaction, and career attitudes (Willie, Copeland, & Williams, 1983), there appear to be few studies which focus on the administrative or managerial role of the adult educator. In fact, only ten percent of all research papers presented at Adult Education Research Conferences during 1971-1980 dealt with institutions, personnel and staff (Long, 1983).

Research information on the adult educator in Indiana is particularly scarce. During the winter of 1982, several discussions were held between members of the Center for Lifelong Education (CLLE) at Ball State University and representatives of the Division of Adult and Community Education, Indiana Department of Public Instruction (IDPI) related to research in adult education. The discussions focused on the lack of information on, and therefore the need to inquire into, the role and function of adult education administrators in the state of Indiana. Of particular importance was information related to administrative training patterns, career mobility patterns, and levels of professional satisfaction relative to role and function for these administrators. The collection of the data relative to career and training patterns, mobility patterns and job satisfaction among practicing public school adult education administrators in Indiana represents a first step toward narrowing one of Knowles (1972) "knowledge gaps". This study is intended to be the first in a series of studies focusing on adult education administrators in Indiana.

Hypotheses

1. There is a specific career path for public school adult education

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administrators in Indiana.
2. There is a relationship between specific factors and self-reported job satisfaction for public school adult education administrators in Indiana.

METHOD

The sample consisted of 101 individuals identified as adult education administrators by the Director of the Division of Adult and Community Education, Indiana Department of Public Instruction. The instrument was developed based on work done by Paddock (1979) at Arizona State University and Quinn & Staines (1979) at the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan. The career pattern and career mobility items were based on the work of Paddock (1979) and the job satisfaction material was based on the work of Quinn & Staines (1979). Expressed permission for the use of the material was obtained from the respective researchers. The demographic section of the instrument was developed by the researchers. The design of the study was a census survey research questionnaire mailed to all designated adult education administrators. The individuals identified by the Director of the Division of Adult and Community Education, Indiana Department of Public Instruction were sent the survey questionnaire along with a cover letter explaining the purpose of the survey and asking for their cooperation. The original survey was mailed in mid-December, 1982. A follow-up letter with an additional copy of the survey was mailed in late January, 1983. In all, 83 useable surveys were returned for a return rate of 83%.

RESULTS

Profile

The median values of the demographic data were used to establish a profile of the adult education administrator in Indiana. This 44-year-old individual with the title Director, is a married Protestant male Caucasian. Both his father and mother completed high school. His father was a farmer or a skilled laborer and his mother was a homemaker. He had 2 brothers and sisters and was raised in a small town with a population between 10,000 and 99,999. He received his bachelors degree from a state university in Indiana at 22 years of age. At the age of 33 years, he earned his masters degree in education, probably vocational education, again from a state university in Indiana. He has minimal training specifically in adult education. He belongs to three professional organizations and two civic organizations. He holds office in one organization. Previously, he was a teacher and held that job for three or four years. He has been in his present position for about two years and hopes to stay in this position for the next five years. He entered the adult education profession without deliberate thought. His preferred position for the long term is to either maintain the same job or achieve a position in central administration.

Data Summaries

The item by item analysis of various questions provides insight into the nature of the individuals known as public school adult education administrators in Indiana. The title of Director (41.0%) is the most frequently occurring title followed by Vocational Director (14.5%), and

Coordinator (14.5%), of either Adult, Community, or ABE.

The respondents fall into two almost equal groups, those less than 45 years and those 45 years and older. The mean, 44 years, falls almost exactly at the break point.

There is a strong male domination in the sample, 72.3% male versus 19.3% female. Other strong characteristics are 90.4% of the respondents are Caucasian and 86.7% of the sampled adult education administrators are married while 83.1% of the respondents are Protestant.

The most significant feature of the family background information is that even though more fathers had at least a high school diploma (56.5%), a large number of fathers had just an eighth grade education (27.7). Completion of high school was also the most prevalent level of education for mothers (42.2%). It is interesting to note that for parents with only a high school education, the mother has more schooling than the father, but for those parents with more than a high school diploma, the father has more schooling than the mother. The most frequent responses for occupation of fathers was "farmer" or "skilled laborer" (44.6%), while the most frequent response for mothers was "other" (49.4%). The written responses for this question indicate that most of those who checked "other" had mothers who were homemakers.

The most frequent degree major for those with bachelor's degrees was industrial/vocational education (26.5%) followed by science/math/agriculture (12.0%) and social studies (12.0%). Only 26.5 of the respondents received their degrees from a college or university outside Indiana. The median age upon receipt of the bachelor's degree was 22 years. One hundred percent of the sample population had a bachelor's degree.

Ninety four percent of the respondents had a master's degree. The single most frequently reported major was "industrial/vocational education" (20.5%) with "other education" (22.9%) received the second largest tally. Most 82.7%, of those respondents with master's degrees obtained them from a college or university in Indiana. The median age at the time the master's degree was granted was 33 years. This implies that the typical respondent works for about ten years before returning to obtain the master's degree.

Only 20.5% of the respondents hold doctorates. Most (70.6%) of these doctorates are in education or school administration. Most (82.4%) of these doctorates were earned from three major universities in Indiana: Ball State University, Indiana University, and Purdue University. The median age at which the doctorate was earned was 36 years. This implies that the typical respondent with a doctorate began work towards the degree almost immediately upon completion of the master's degree.

Adult education administrators in Indiana were reared in small towns: 71.1% of the respondents grew up in a town of less than 99,999 population. The most frequent response was "small town", 10,000-99,999, (27.7%) followed by "rural", less than 2,500 (25.3%), then "small rural town", 2,500-9,999 (18.1%). Considering the typical size of a community in Indiana, this result is not surprising.

Public school adult education administrators in Indiana belong to three professional organizations and from one to three civic organizations. Sixteen repondents (19.3%) currently hold office in one or more professional organizations. Thirteen respondents (15.7%) currently hold office in one or more civic organizations.

The respondents had a striking lack of training pertinent to adult education. Less than one quarter of the respondents indicated that they have attended professional workshops. Those that attended workshops averaged four workshops for an average time spent of 4.4 weeks. Just at one in six indicated that they have taken non-degree academic courses. Those that have taken non-degree academic courses averaged two quarters with one course per quarter.

When queried about the reasons for entering the adult education profession, the respondents first choice was "other" (43.4%). "I happened into it without any deliberate thought." received the next highest number of responses (38.6%).

The most frequent response to the inquiry concerning the nature of the position sought in the next five years was "in education, in my present position" (38.6%). The same information was sought concerning the nature of position desired in the long term. The most frequent response was "in education, in my present position" (20.5%), or "in central office administration" (19.3%).

When questioned regarding their willingness to move, the respondents indicated that less than half are willing to move to another area in the same state. Less than 40% of the respondents indicated a willingness to move to another state in the same region, and less than one third stated that they are willing to move to another state in a different region. The reasons for this unwillingness to move included: (1) family, (2) satisfaction with present job, (3) job security, (4) financial, (5) age, and (6) community.

The likelihood of a career change yielded similar results. The data show that the respondents are highly unlikely to look for a new job in adult education in the next year (62.7%). They are neutral about the likelihood of changing occupations in the next five years. There is, however, a practically and statistically significant correlation between the unwillingness to change job or career in the next five years and agreement with the statement: "I have too much at stake in my job." When asked about the type of ideal career, the respondents indicated same/similar career (44.6%) or a career outside of education (43.4%) in almost equal numbers.

Factors Related to Job Satisfaction

The 26 questions related to job satisfaction were analyzed using component analysis followed by maximum likelihood factor analysis using Varimax Rotation. The questions were answered using a seven level Likert scale where the numeral 1 corresponded to "agree" and the numeral 7 corresponded to "disagree." The factor analysis yielded six factors related to job satisfaction: Accomplishment Autonomy/Prestige, Advancement, Intrinsic Reward, Social Connections, and Job-home Balance.

These six factors were checked for relationships with certain of the demographic characteristics. Analysis of variance was run for each question in the factor versus age, sex, salary, percentage of work time spent on adult education, willingness to move within the state, willingness to move to a new state in the same region, willingness to move to a new state in a different region, and whether the respondent holds a bachelor's degree, master's degree, or a doctorate. The acceptable level of significance was set at $p<0.10$.

There were five significant relationships: (1) Females agreed more with the following statements related to Factor 1, Accomplishments: (a) worthwhile tasks, (b) the worthwhile feelings, and (c) develop skills and abilities. (2) Those respondents with low salaries disagreed more with the statement: "I have adequate chance for promotion." (3) Those respondents willing to move out of state either near or far away agreed more with the statement: "My career plan has always been to advance to better positions." (4) Those respondents willing to move anywhere, in state or out, near or far, agreed more with the statement: "Most of the people that I see socially outside of work I have met in connection with my job." (5) Those respondents with doctorates agreed more with the statement: "Most of the people I see socially outside of work are people I have met in connection with my job."

CONCLUSIONS

People are functioning as adult education leaders with little directly related formal training. Less than 10 out of 83 respondents have degrees in adult education. The respondents have very little other training pertinent to adult education. These data support the related conclusion that people are functioning as adult education leaders with little directly related informal training. Less than one-fourth of the respondents have degrees in administration. Therefore, people are functioning in an administrative capacity with little directly related formal training.

There is a strong sense of localism among adult education leaders in Indiana as indicated by: (a) most of the respondents were schooled in Indiana, (b) most of the respondents were unwilling to move, and (c) most of the respondents were unlikely to change jobs. This might indicate that the public school adult education administrators in Indiana bring a fairly uniform point of view to the problems and tasks of their jobs. This is good, in that adult education programs across the state probably have many similarities. Also, much of Indiana is rural and so these adult education administrators serve a reasonably uniform population. On the other hand, it might indicate a narrowness of perspective that could stifle creative approaches to the problems of the field.

The results of the analysis of variance relating the factors of job satisfaction with demographic characteristics are worth further discussion. The first result was that women agreed more strongly with certain accomplishment statements than did male respondents. This might indicate that women tend to see the job as more of a challenge than men do. On the other hand, there were so few women in the sample that the drastic difference in sample size between men and women respondents could have distorted the result.

The second significant result related low salaries with a feeling of lack of chance for promotion. This idea warrants further study. The third significant result related willingness to move with the plan to advance to better positions. This relates well with Gouldner's (1957) theory of cosmopolitanism and localism and ties in well with the issue of geographic identity versus professional identity. The fourth and fifth significant results both dealt with the tendency to meet socially outside of work with those people met on the job. This correlated well with both a willingness to move anywhere and also with whether the respondent holds a doctorate. Again, this ties in with the idea of professional ties versus geographic ties.

So, relative to the stated hypotheses: (1) There is no discernible career path for public school adult education administrators in Indiana, and (2) Six factors related to job satisfaction of public school administrators were discovered.

Recommendations

In conclusion, we encourage consideration for the following research questions: (1) Does the type of training received by the adult education administrator affect the nature of the operation of the program? (2) To what extent does "localism" influence innovation? (3) What are the effects of the perceived unavailability of promotion on work performance? (4) Is the level of salary related to actual chances for promotion? (5) Are the job satisfaction factors found in the study a complete list? (6) Which of the job satisfaction factors affect the quality and quantity of job performance as perceived on both the organizational and personal levels? (7) Are women more satisfied with a job that allows a strong sense of accomplishment?

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EXAMINING THE LEARNING STYLES OF RETURNING ADULT STUDENTS: EMERGING ELEMENTS OF BEST PRACTICE WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING STYLES

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INTRODUCTION:

The last decade has witnessed a dramatic increase in the number of adult students returning to university and college campuses. Jerold Apps has characterized this movement as a "quiet revolution", less pronounced but reminiscent of the period following World War II when veterans flooded college campuses across the country, trading the G.I. Bill of Rights for college degrees (Apps 1981). Recent national surveys indicate that 40% to 50% of all courses taken by adults (the majority by part-time students) are conducted on two and four year campuses (National Center For Educational Statistics 1980).

The population structure of higher education is itself changing. Whereas campuses were once dominated by students of 'traditional' college age (17 to 24), the number of 'non-traditional' students age 25 and older is rapidly growing. It is now estimated that of the 12 million people attending two and four year colleges, 30% to 40% are in this age group (Kasworm, 1980). For example, of the 43,075 students enrolled on the University of Wisconsin-Madison campus in the Fall 1983 term, 12,826 or 30% were age 25 and older. Approximately half of this non-traditional age group can be classified as returning adults, those who have come back to school after at least a three year absence from college coursework, in order to finish an undergraduate or graduate degree, or embark on a graduate course of study (Cross 1981, Apps 1981).

Numerous studies have been conducted on the reasons adult students return to school including the early works of Cyril Houle (1961), the Commission on Non-traditional Study (Carp, Peterson and Roelfs 1976), and the life-events that 'trigger' the decision to return (Aslanian and Brickell 1980). Particular attention has been given to the needs and interests of women students (Asten 1976). Institutional and situational barriers to 'potential learners' have been the mainstay for state and national surveys conducted during the last decade (Cross 1980).

Few investigations have focused on returning adult learning styles and thus, elements of 'best practice' associated with appropriate teaching styles. Learning styles are defined as characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment (Keefe 1979). Research on teaching effectiveness has historically focused on developing the single best method for all students (traditional and non-traditional). But as Cross (1976) and others have pointed out this search has been "inconclusive and disappointing" because the focus has been on developing instructional techniques rather than on first understanding the ways in which individuals learn. Learning style assessments do offer a way of examining adult student styles, demanding in turn appropriate changes in classroom instruction. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to examine returning adult student learning styles and suggest elements of 'best practice' these styles hold for classroom instructors of adults.

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METHODS AND PROCEDURES:

The theoretical framework for this study can be found in Lewin's Field Psychology Theory (Lewin 1936), and the Cognitive-Field Theory of Learning. (Bigge 1976). Within these theories, an individual's behavior is a function of the person and his or her psychological environment i.e., B = f (P,E). Elements of an individual adult student's life-space such as family life, the return to school and time spent at work are acting "all at once with each other" or contemporaneously. Thus, a person's learning style is a reflection of the interaction of these life-space regions. Classroom climate, teacher attitudes and instructional methods, work conditions and familial dispostion all have an impact on the individual learner's perception of appropriate conditions and modes for learning, as well as expected level of achievement. Thus, understanding what an individual thinks and knows about how he or she learns is important to consider in developing effective teaching strategies for adults.

The research design for this study consisted of descriptive, correlational and comparative surveys. Data was collected over a three year period from a stratified random sample of newly enrolled University of Wisconsin-Madison graduate students within the School of Education and the College of Agriculture. Subjects were 25 year of age and older, U.S. citizens and had three years between current and previous college course enrollments. The sample consisted of 29 males and 62 females with a median age of 30.4 years, and a range of 25 to 61 years. Sixty-two respondents were married, 33 with at least one child, median age 4.3 years; 18 were never married and 11 were divorced or separated, all female. Eight members of this latter group were single parents. Thirty percent were employed full-time, 44% part-time and 26% were unemployed. The majority of the respondents (47%) started their graduate programs with BS degrees, 33% had some MS work and 26% had earned an MS degree. Most of the participants were attending school full-time (55%), taking nine or more semester credits. The median length of time out of school was 4.8 years; 58% were out three to five years, 21% six to eight years and 21% nine or more years. The major motivation for returning to school was career-related (n = 78); 54% for new job skills, 37% to improve current job skills and 9% to 'broaden their professional interests'. The remainder (n = 13) said they had returned for intellectual growth and because it was simply 'convenient at the time'.

Data was collected upon the first semester back to school (n = 91) and one year hence (n = 43), using 14 open-ended interview questions and a battery of four questionnaires including the Canfield Learning Styles Inventory (Canfield 1980). The Canfield LSI is a 30-item instrument (r = .96) generating 17 variables on four dimensions: preferred conditions, content, modes and expected performance. Data were subjected to t-test, ANOVA and regression routines.

RESULTS:

A majority of students (67% and 62% respectively) had strong preferences for setting their own learning goals and working independently from others. Half of all respondents indicated high preferences for class organization (e.g. syllabi) and teacher-authored learning activities. However, 60% indicated a low preference for detailed daily lesson plans, 70% had low preferences for engaging in competitive activities (timed-tests, grade comparisions, etc.), and 66% indicated low preferences for engaging in social activities (developing warm social relations) with either instructors or peers.

Multiple regression analysis indicated that students preferring to take responsibility for their learning had low preferences for teacher-authored structure and activity, for social relationships with peers and competition with others.

TABLE 1: MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF A PREFERENCE FOR GOAL-SETTING BY LSI VARIABLES.

Criterion Variable	Step	Predictors	R	Multiple R^2	Regression Weight B	Beta
GOALS	1	INDEPENDENCE	.68*	.46	.02	.03
	2	ORGANIZATION	-.49*	.53	-.98	-.87**
	3	PEER AFFILIATION	-.33*	.68	-.97	-.88**
	4	COMPETITON	-.40*	.84	-.96	-.64**
	5	OBJECTS	-.05	.85	.02	.03**

* Sig. at $p < .005$
** Sig. at $p < .05$

ANOVA

Sources	df	SS	MS	F	
Regression	5	1053.08	210.62	1633.40	$p < .001$
Residual	81	10.44	.13		

In addition, those who preferred working independently had low preferences for teacher-authored classroom activity, detailed lessons and developing social relationships with peers and instructors ($R^2 = .84$; $F = 278.25$, (df = 4,81), $p < .001$).

Students with a BS or MS degree, (and no additional coursework before reentry), had higher preferences for teacher-authored activity (Table 2). Persons with some MS degree work, 66% of whom were part-time students, had higher preferences for social relations with peers ($F = 4.27$, df = 2,84; $p < .05$) and instructors ($F = 3.58$, df = 2,84; $p < .05$). No significant differences were found between learning style preferences expressed immediately upon reentry and one year later.

TABLE 2: ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TEACHER AUTHORITY BY EDUCATION LEVEL.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	
Between Groups	2	160.53	80.27	6.24	$p < .003$
Within Groups	84	1081.15	12 87		
Total	86	1241.68			

POST - HOC SCHEFFE

Education Level	N	Mean	SD
BS	41	12.37	3.40
Some MS	28	11.07*	3.76
MS	18	14.89*	3.72

* Sig. Diff. at $p < .05$

Although part-time students had lower expcted performances than did full-time students (Table 3), the former group out-performed the latter in "A's" received for the first semester and subsequent semesters. Part-time students also underestimated their own capabilities compared to full-time students.

TABLE 3: LEVEL OF EXPECTED PERFORMANCE AND ACTUAL ACHIEVEMENT OF FULL AND PART-TIME RETURNING ADULT STUDENTS.

	First Semester Returned [a]				One Year Later [b]			
	Full-Time		Part-Time		Full-Time		Part-Time	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Expected 'B' or Lower	10	20.4	17	44.7	3	13.5	9	45.0
Received 'B'	8	16.3	2	5.3	4	18.2	3	15.0
Expected 'A'	39	79.6	21	55.3	19	86.5	11	55.0
Received 'A'	41	83.7	36	94.7	18	81.8	17	85.0

a. n = 87
b. n = 42

DISCUSSION:

The tendency for adult students to express their desire to work independently from others, especially an instructor, and to take responsibility for their learning are well recognized axioms in adult education. This is not to say that adult students want to be 'set adrift' without any direction. Adults do want overall course organization (syllabi, reading lists, etc.). They also want some input to the daily classroom agenda, the content to be pursued and the method of pursuit. Low preferences for warm social relationships within the classroom provide evidence of the business-like attitude with which adults approach the return to school. Consider the following response to the interview question "What are your expectations of a college class instructor"?

> "He should be knowledgeable in the area. I don't care if he's that personable. I don't need a personal relationship. I'm here for my own benefit as a consumer. What I need is a chance to meld his theory with my practice....a chance to think."

Adult students do not want to avoid discussion with peers or instructors, for they view the chance to speak to their own experiences as one of the most valuable aids to their learning. But they are more interested in developing collegial relationships rather than warm, social relations. They attach great importance to the time they spend in class and want to use it effectively. Therefore, returning adults expect their instructors to arrive in class on time and to be ready for intellectual challenge from adults who view them as colleagues.

Students returning with BS and MS degres, and without additional academic coursework prior to reentry, appear to hold more 'traditional' notions of instructor roles and classroom conditions. Two-way ANOVA tests revealed no differences in preference for authority by educational level on age, years out of school, employment status, etc. This suggests that achieving the degree itself is a strong socializing force for adult students and that associations between previous learning conditions and current expectations are subject to this force. Differences between part- and full-time students on expected levels of performance may also reflect the influence of 'school culture' on adult student expectations. Grades tended to be more important to full-time students versus part-timers. Part-time students, most of whom were 'stop-out' students from years previous, tended to be much more concerned with learning course content than with grade achievement, even though they ultimately outperformed full-time students.

The analysis of adult learning preferences presented above confirms the notions of individual differences in learning style and style stability over time (Messick 1976). It also suggests elements of best practice that can be incorporated into existing teaching styles. First, the majority of returning adults (like other adult learners) want to be given the responsibility for their own learning. Second, returning adults want the opportunity to meld current practice with existing and developing theory, and a chance to speak to their professional (and personal) experiences within the classroom. Third, adults view the classroom as an 'embryonic chamber', a place to test out new ideas and challenge peers and instructors. These elements of best practice suggest the integration of information processing and person-centered teaching models (Joyce and Weil 1980) and support the notion that principles of adult learning developed outside of classrooms are applicable to the adult classroom as well.

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FUNCTIONS OF RESEARCH: A CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF BASIC, APPLIED AND EVALUATION RESEARCH AND ITS APPLICATION IN ADULT EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION: PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGY

Educational researchers and scholars have noted the differences between basic and applied research (Kerlinger, 1979, and Cook and Campbell, 1979) and between basic and evaluation research (Worthen and Sanders, 1973, and Campbell, 1982). Previous conceptualizations have made distinctions among two types of research, however, this paper suggests conceptual distinctions among three types of research: basic, applied and evaluation. In an evolving field, distinctions are based on recent writings and the elaboration of evaluation research as different in emphasis from basic and applied research (McMillan and Schumacher, 1984). This paper, in addition, illustrates the distinctions among the functions of basic, applied and evaluation research with empirical studies in adult education.

The conceptual framework for the distinctions among basic, applied and evaluation research was developed from both the literature and actual uses of empirical studies. A differential-type analysis (Soltis, 1978) is appropriate when a concept, i.e. research, seems to have more than one standard meaning and the basis for differentiating between meanings is not clear. The characteristics of each type of research was identified to develop a topology. In a conceptual analysis, topology represents a necessary and essential condensation of meanings. The differential-type analysis distinguishes among the standard meanings of the concept and provides a clearer idea of the logical domain of the concept research.

The topology of Functions of Types of Research (See Figure) identifies distinctions among basic, applied and evaluation research in seven categories: topic of research, purpose, typical role of investigator, level of discourse, generalizability of explanations, functions, and intended ultimate outcomes. Included in the analysis is both qualitative and quantitative studies. Some of the common misconceptions about the functions of basic, applied and evaluation research and the contributions of each type of research in furthering inquiry and developing methodology are identified.

BASIC RESEARCH

Basic research is conducted in the physical, behavioral, and social sciences. Kerlinger (1979, p. 283) states that "basic research is research done to test theory, to study relationships among phenomena in order to understand the phenomena, with little or no thought of applications of the results of the research to practical problems." Basic research is concerned

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Functions of Types of Research *

	BASIC	APPLIED	EVALUATION
Topic of Research:	Physical, behavioral, and social sciences	Applied field: medicine, social work, engineering, education	Practice in a given site or sites
Purpose:	1. Test theories and/or discover scientific laws, basic principles 2. Determine empirical relationships among natural and social phenomena 3. Determine analytical relationships among past and present events	1. Test the usefulness of scientific theories within a given field 2. Determine empirical relationships within a given field 3. Determine analytical relationships among past and present events within a given field	1. Assess the merit of specific practice 2. Assess the worth of a specific practice
Typical Role of Investigator:	Scientist[1]	Researcher within a given field	Researcher in a given field and/or practitioner in a given site or sites
Level of Discourse:	Abstract, general within science	Abstract, general within a given field	Concrete, specific to a particular practice
Generalizability of Explanations:	Relate to physical, behavioral, and social sciences	Apply to a given field	Apply to a specific practice in a given site or sites
Functions:	1. Add to scientific knowledge of basic laws and principles 2. Advance further inquiry and methodology	1. Add to research-based knowledge in a given field 2. Advance research and methodology in a given field	1. Add to research-based knowledge about a specific practice 2. Advance research and methodology of a specific practice 3. Aid in decision-making at a given site
Intended Ultimate Outcomes:	Accepted body of scientific knowledge in physical, behavioral, and social sciences	Accepted body of research-based knowledge in a given field	1. Change of practice at a site or sites 2. Knowledge in related applied field

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[1] Mitroff and Kilmann (1978) suggest four types of scientists and methodological approaches: analytical scientist, conceptual theorist, conceptual humanist, and particular humanist.

* McMillan, J. and Schumacher, S. (March, 1984). Research in education: A conceptual introduction. Boston: Little, Brown, and Co., pp. 9-10.

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exclusively with knowing and understanding natural and social phenomena. Scientists want to know how phenomena relate and to predict these relationships. To understand phenomena is to explain the phenomena. A theory is an explanation, a systematic account of relationships among phenomena. By testing theories, a scientist may also discover a basic principle or law. If a theory has been consistently supported by research, then it may be called a scientific law. A scientific law is generalizable - that is, it explains many individual cases. As Kerlinger (1979, p. 12) notes, "general laws, general statements of relationships, are necessarily abstract because they must apply to many specific cases." For example, S. Merrian and L. Mullins (1981) tested the saliency of Robert Havinghurst's adulthood tasks on 540 adults who represented three income levels and three age groups. In general, the adults in this study considered Havinghurst's developmental tasks to be important today, but when the responses were compared in groupings of income level, sex and age, differences appeared with regard to the relative importance of the tasks. The research purposes of D. J. Levinson (1978, p. x), was to "create a developmental perspective on adulthood in men. . . a systematic conception of the entire life cycle, which paying particular attention to the major seasons of adulthood." The findings are abstract to encompass the specific cases of the 40 men.

The results of basic research are related to previous research and knowledge within the science or academic discipline. Basic research has never been designed for solving human and social problems, making decisions, or taking action. To do this would require a leap from the abstract level of discourse to a concrete and specific level as well as erode the scientist's committment to objectivity. Basic research may affect, however, ways of thinking and perceiving behaviors and situations and may influence applied research by identifying theories to be tested field of application. Thus, basic research can influence practice indirectly after a considerable period of time, but the study is not designed to lead to action. Both the Levinson and the Merrian and Mullins studies focus on adult development - a social and psychological phenomena, not a programmatic phenomena - and may or may not effect educational practices by influencing how adult educators perceive their students.

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APPLIED RESEARCH

Applied research is conducted in a field of common practices, e.g. medicine, engineering, education, and is concerned with the application and development of research-based knowledge about those practices. "Applied research (as opposed to basic research) is mission-oriented and aimed at producing knowledge relevant to providing a solution (generalizable) to a general problem" (Worthen and Sanders, 1973, p. 23). In other words, applied studies focus on research problems common to a given field such as the "Effects of adult learner participation in course planning on achievements and satisfaction" (Rosenblum and Darkenwald, 1983) the "Effects of fees on clientele characteristics and participation in adult education (Boshier and Baker, 1979), "Personological variables related to GED retention and withdrawal" (Wilson, 1980), and "Comparative study of adult education practitioners and professors on future knowledge and skills needed by adult educators" (Daniel and Rose, 1982).

Applied research, similar to basic research, is abstract and general, using the language common to those in the profession. The generalizability of applied research is usually limited to the delineated field. Educational research thus focuses on knowledge about educational theories and practice rather than on universal knowledge.

Despite the name applied research, the results of most applied studies are rarely directly or immediately usable by practitioners at a given site. The practice which is studied may not be operating at a particular site. In the studies cited above, an adult education program may not have fees or may be using an individual programmed instructional approach. Implications for practice are general, not specific recommendations for immediate action. Thus, R. Boshier and G. Baker concluded from their study of the effects of fees that "with regard to educational entitlement and attempts to evoke participation from members of the lower socio-economic groups, the present study has helped reiterate what is already known: participation is a complex phenomenon stemming from multi-variate origins" (1979, p. 168).

Applied research does, however, influence the way practitioners think and perceive a common problem, stimulates further research, and suggests new theories of practice and social science. Thus Rosenblum and Darkenwald (1983, p. 152) suggest that despite the finding that participation in planning had no direct effects or achievement and satisfaction, the study suggests further research should control for the factor of motivation and investigate the effects on other dependent variables, e.g. greater group cohesive, self-directed learning, and the like. Applied research can also stimulate basic methodological research in analysis and in measurement, i.e. measurement of adult intelligence.

EVALUATION RESEARCH

Evaluation research focuses on a particular practice at a given site. The practice may be a program, a product, or a process. The site is crucial in evaluation research. Evaluation research assesses the merit and worth of a particular practice in terms of the values operating at a single site or more than one site. Evaluation determines whether the practice works - that is, does it do what is intended at the site? Evaluation determines whether the practice is worth the costs of development, implementation, or widespread adoption. Costs may be those of materials, time and space, staff skills and morale, and community concerns. Examples of evaluation research are "Organizational barriers to the administration of correctional education: An analysis of a correctional school district" (MacNeil, 1980), "Adult basic education in Ohio: A program impact evaluation" (Boggs, Buss, and Yarnell, 1979), and "Determining the learning needs of the older adult in a rural community: Perceptions of the service provider" (Nelson, 1983).

An evaluation study is communicated in concrete language, specific to the practice and meanful to the participants. The findings should have "site-specific interpretability" (Campbell, 1982). Because evaluation aids in immediate decision-making, the findings usually have limited generalizability. Both applied and evaluation research may study practices common to many educational settings, but evaluation focuses on the specific implementation at a given site. Thus, Nelson's study of learning needs of older adults in a rural community focused on two types of learning, two learning activity levels and three modes of instruction. The impact study in Ohio focused on "changes in their lives" in six areas: involvement, employment, children/school, voting, homeownership, and education.

An evaluation study, if so designed, can also provide more general knowledge about a specific disseminable practice. Campbell (1982) has proposed a "cross-validating contagion model" and competitive models. Evaluation research can stimulate further research and methodological development to study practice. Assessment of achievement has encouraged measurement in areas not previously attempted, i.e. adult learning. Evaluation studies often identify variables or suggest hypotheses for other evaluation studies and applied research. Thus, the Ohio impact study suggests refinements in measurement if a personal interview is used and the assessment of learning needs study suggests the global categories of instrumental and expressive needs are "much too broad."

IMPLICATIONS

There seems to be concensus that basic, applied and evaluation research are important and that there is a necessity to nourish all kinds of research. Understanding the functions of basic, applied and evaluation research aide in conducting, reading and using research. Rarely is a single study equally adequate as basic, applied and evaluation research because the functions and level of discourse differ. The researcher relates the findings to the functions of one or more types of research. The consumer of research judges the findings as they relate to the functions of research. Most studies are judged adequate as one type of research and less adequate for other types of research.

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I. The Early Adult Life Structure of Women following Traditional Homemaker, Career-Committed and Integrated Life Patterns: Implications for Adult Development Theory and Counseling Practice

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II. Introduction—Conceptual Framework and Purpose of the Study

This study examines the lives of traditional homemaker, career-committed and integrated women during the span of years identified by Levinson (1980) as the Early Adult Era (ages 17-40). The life structure approach to the study of adult development is the theoretical perspective from which the research was conceived and implemented. The purpose of the study was to identify developmental themes and the patterns of transition and structure for the three sub-groups of women. These findings are compared across the sub-groups and then compared to the themes and patterns derived from the lives of men (Levinson, 1978).

Freud is purported to have stated that the definition of maturity was to be found in the capacity to love and to work. The centrality of these two phenomena in adult life is generally agreed upon (Smelser and Erikson, 1980). However, because of the differing cultural meanings attached to the expression of self through love and work based upon gender, it is possible that the developmental tasks required to achieve the maturity may be differently problematic for men and women.

Two current and widely recognized studies on adult development have examined the lives of men (Levinson, 1978; Vaillant, 1977). Subjects were selected into the studies either because of their membership in a particular occupational group (Levinson, 1978) or because of their membership as a student in a highly competitive, achievement-oriented college (Vaillant, 1977). It would be inappropriate to approach the study of the life course of women using either occupational group or the likelihood to achieve as the criteria by which to select women to study since occupational choice and achievement orientation are not always expressed similarly by men and women during adulthood.

This research identified three sub-populations of women for study based upon the pattern of love/work established by them in the adult years. The three sub-populations included were:

1. The Traditional Homemaker Woman. These women typically were employed before marriage, married during their early adult years, left employment early in the marriage and did not have a sustained work pattern outside the home again in their adult years.
2. The Career-Committed Woman. These women worked continuously throughout adulthood in an occupation they considered to be a career and they lived their adult years as single persons.
3. The Integrated Woman. These women combined career, marriage and family beginning in the Early Adult years and sustained work for pay continuously through adulthood.

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III. Methodology

Each of the three sub-populations was studied separately utilizing the same methodology (Scott, 1979, Kaye, 1981, Hickey, 1981). The total number of adult women studied was 22 distributed as follows: Traditional Homemaker: 8; Career-committed: 8; Integrated: 6. Because the size of the sample populations was small and drawn from volunteers from an urban area in Pennsylvania, the samples may not be truly representative of the life pattern groups. The study was exploratory and the findings are limited to identifying themes and generating hypotheses.

A biographical case study design was implemented using a planned interview schedule (copies of this schedule may be obtained from the authors). Total interview time for each subject varied between 3 to 6 hours. The first interview began with an examination of the family constellation in the subjects' early years (birth through adolescence). The subject then identified, via a life line chronology, the marker events which had significance for her across her adult years, starting with what she indicated as the beginning of her adulthood. The subject examined the chronology of marker events and was asked to indicate on the life line what she experienced (if any) as phases or periods within her adult years. The subsequent interviews were organized to obtain a description of her self, her life and her relationships during each of these identified phases.

Upon completion of the interviewing process, the interviews were transcribed verbatim and analyzed individually using a seven-step phenomenological technique of analysis (Kaye, 1981). This analysis included a validation of formulated meanings by each subject. In the final step of the analysis, the themes present across all subject were identified as the developmental themes of the adult years for women within each sub-group. Transitional and structural building periods were posited from the sequence of developmental themes.

IV. Findings

The modal age identified as the onset of adulthood was 17-18. This age identification appeared related to socialization rituals in the culture such as high school graduation, beginning work or attending school beyond college. Subjects identifying the start of adulthood at much earlier ages either had "mothering" responsibilities in the home at an early age because of unpredictable circumstances or had an unusual earlier school ritual. One subject reported the earlier onset of adulthood related to her involvement in social activism organization.

The data indicates a sequence of four alternating transition and structure building periods which were posited from the sequence of developmental themes derived from the data analysis. Unlike Levinson's findings from the lives of men, no clear age related relationship appeared associated with transition and structure building periods. Similar to Levinson's findings, however, phases appear in the same order in the biographical protocols of each subject. There is variation in the age at which each phase typically begins and ends. The onset of movement from transition to structure to transition is sometimes precipitated by external circumstances; sometimes by inner turmoil and distress and sometimes by a reported inner experience of being finished and ready to move on. Table 1 identifies the developmental tasks and the hypothesized sequence of transition and structure building periods during the Early Adult Era for the women within each sub-group.

The age range of 17-33 was reported by Levinson to be the novice phase of adulthood for men where the emphasis was upon differentiation, acquisition of new adult roles and skills and demonstrating competence at being an adult

Table 1
Developmental Themes for the Sample Groups
(arranged into hypothesized transition and structure building periods)

Traditional	Integrated	Career-Committed
Period 1: Transition into Early Adult Era		
1. Modify role and connection to family of origin	1. Modify role and connection to family of origin	1. Modify role and connection to family of origin
2. Clarify relational Dream	2. Follow the Dream	2. Begin to form a Dream
3. Find the special man by establishing adult/adult social interaction with primary emphasis on heterosexual contacts	3. Pursue heterosexual relationships consistent with Dream and establish adult/adult social network with individuals supportive of Dream	3. Establish adult/adult social network with individuals supportive of achievement strivings and exploration
4. Set a bounded occupational direction	4. Set an occupational direction and explore possibilities within it	4. Set an occupational direction
Period 2: First Early Adult Life Structure		
1. Invest self fully in the relational structure	1. Invest self fully in the work/love balance accomplished during transition and strive to achieve the Dream within it	1. Invest self fully in developing career achievement competency
2. Establish self in relational structure by expanding into and developing competency in the roles inherent in relational structure (i.e. wife, married daughter, daughter-in-law	2. Expand into new roles inherent in the love/work balance and become competent within them	2. Expand investment of self into exploring world beyond work
3. Change social network to world of women to support relational role development	3. Establish a social network supportive of strivings	3. Broaden social network to support career and world exploration activities
4. Integrate the realities of "being mother" against idealized images	4. Form or intensify relationships with special man as partner in the Dream	4. Maintain heterosexual relationships when not limiting of career movement or world exploration

Table 1 (Continued)
Developmental Themes for the Sample Groups
(arranged into hypothesized transition and structure building periods)

Traditional	Integrated	Career-committed
	Period 3: Transition within Early Adult Era	
1. Balance investment of self across relational roles and reassess flexible priorities and functions within the balance as defined	1. Reassess balance of commitments to love and work	1. Reassess balance of commitments to love and work
2. Encounter the Idealized Dream	2. Identify ways to alter balance of self investment in order to achieve Dream	2. Reestablish or modify family of origin connections
		3. Encounter the Idealized Dream
	Period 4: Second Adult Life Structure	
1. Form a balance between expanding into worl and commitments to the relational structure	1. Invest self as fully as possible across components of revised structure	1. Invest self in work as redefined to achieve respect and recognition
2. Make room in the life structure for self. Begin to address "Who am I" as separate from those with whom I bond	2. Manage the balance of self investment across work/love social components to accomplish flexibility and priorities in system to enhance problem solving: Make the Dream Work	2. Form a "home" base and establish a place for self within it
	3. Encounter the Idealized Dream	

in an adult world. The Early Adult Era for men culminates with the Settling Down Phase during ages 33-40 and is dominated by the theme of Become One's Own Man.

For the three groups of women in this study, the initial phases of the Early Adult Era are also characterized by an emphasis upon finding and creating an adult world and becoming competent within it. The culminating phase of the Early Adult Era for women was not characterized by the same kinds of achievement imagery in connection with Becoming One's Own Woman as the man had in Becoming One's Own Man. This final structure building phase for women might instead be labeled "Settling" with various connotations given to the word, depending upon which sample population is being described.

Work on the developmental tasks identified in this final period was evident in most of the women's lives in each sub-group by the late 30's - although in some cases this developmental work was not engaged until the late 40's or early 50's. This delayed developmental work was most often experienced by subjects who had not experienced competency in the direction of their Dream during the Early Adult Era and these women experienced much emotional and/or physical distress.

V. Discussion

The results of this study allow tentative suppositions to be proposed. First, there does appear to be a similar sequence of alternating transition and structure building periods present in the lives of both men and women. For women the age relationship to change of phase did not appear to be confirmed. Second, the encompassing theme of establishing competency as an adult during the Early Adult Era was parallel to men in the women's lives within each sub-group.

Finally, the importance of the concept of the "Dream" in understanding the sequence of development during the Early Adult Era can be underlined. The Dream is defined as an internally imagined possibility of being an adult in an adult world. The image includes not only material about self as an adult but also about the personal world one will be in as an adult. Developmentally we are creating our personal world at the same time that we are becoming a competent self who inhabits and masters this world. The Dream begins vague - sometimes out of awareness - but can be inferred from the way one manages the involvement of self in the other developmental tasks. The Dream guides and gives direction to the choices made concerning family, work and marriage. The Dream also is the internal context from which one assesses one's competency as an adult. The transition and structure building periods revolve around acquiring life components consistent with the Dream, investing self to demonstrate competency in the direction of accomplishing the Dream, and the reassessment of the self in-world as measured against the Dream.

Differences between the sub-groups of women in this study can be related to the focus of the Dream at the Transition into Early Adulthood as well as to the scope of life components necessary in the Dream and the openness of the Dream. Traditional Homemaker women in this first adult phase had a Dream whose focus was on establishing a family with the scope of life components revolving around finding the marital partner. Integrated women had a Dream whose focus was on achieving an upwardly mobile way of life with the scope of life components including finding the marital partner as well as personal achievement. Career-committed women had a dream whose focus was on occupational mastery with an openness to explore world experience and relationships as possible and desirable life components within the Dream.

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ASSUMING RESPONSIBILITY FOR SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING IN PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE: THE CONTRIBUTION OF PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS

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INTRODUCTION

The focus of this study emerged out of this investigator's interests in continuing professional education and adult development, particularly women's development in the context of a professional career. The nexus between these broad areas of interest lies in the fact that there are major areas of responsibility in adulthood. One of these is work; related to work responsibility is the learning that enhances professional competence and distinguishes the individual as expert in her/his profession.

While there are differences among the professions with respect to their historical development, specific functions, and problems, there is one fairly clear area of agreement: professionals must continue to learn in order to fulfill their work obligations. Professional competence necessitates continued learning with the primary responsibility placed on the individual. This position is pervasive in the literature.

The call for continuing education in the professions became more vocal in the 1960's, when legislative and other mandates for accountability intensified. For example, more emphasis was placed on mandatory continuing education and relicensure in the professions. However, personal motivation to improve one's practice remained a central theme. Houle (1967) stated, "Ultimately the individual is himself responsible for his own education, and most of his learning efforts must be self-directed" (p. 265).

The view of leaders in the health professions was much the same. In medicine, learner autonomy and diagnosis of practice was favored over subject-centered programming: "Continuing education should mean continuing self-education, not continuing instruction" (Miller, 1967, p. 324). In nursing, Cooper (1980) pointed out that rapid changes in social conditions and technology will require nurses, as adults and as professionals, to be responsible for their own continuing education. She suggested that "Progress in nursing depends upon increased numbers of motivated, dedicated self-directed learners" (1980, p. 1).

The significance attached to individual responsibility for continued professional learning is demonstrated by the development of models which seek to enhance self-directed learning efforts. A recent example is the model of quality continuing education designed by Suter, et. al. (1981) at the Association of American Medical Colleges. A major category in the proposed model, Providing Educational Assistance, called for "facilitating health professionals' acceptance of responsibility for learning, improving their self-directed learning efforts, and assisting them in applying results of learning to practice" (p. 698).

Recognition of the value of, and necessity for, continued professional learning is, therefore, quite evident. It is also clear that this responsibility ultimately rests with the individual. At this point, we know that many professionals, including nurses, do engage in self-directed learning (Moran, 1977; Kathrein, 1981; Skaggs, 1981). However, we cannot begin to facilitate professionals' acceptance of responsibility for, or provide assistance with, self-directed learning without knowing the factor(s) which may account for this behavior. The purpose of the study was to provide identification and analysis of those variables significantly related to the adult's assumption of responsibility for self-directed learning related to professional practice. It intended to address practical concerns, that of providing information useful to operationalizing models such as Suter's. It also intended to address theoretical concerns, that of providing a tentative framework for understanding the dynamics of self-directed learning within the context of women's development in a professional career. These concerns were pursued in testing the following hypothesis:

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> If a professional who is a self-reported, self-directed learner, has (1) decisive positive ego-crises resolutions and (2) support from a significant other, then that person will assume responsibility for continued learning related to professional practice.

In addition, the following questions were explored:

1. Are there situations or events which require assessment of one's practice, and trigger self-directed learning projects?
2. What kinds of learning projects are pursued by women in advanced clinical nursing positions (Clinical Nurse Specialist, Nurse Practitioner)?
3. Are there salient demographic or educational characteristics of women in these positions who are self-directed learners?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Although there have been numerous studies in this area, current theoretical and research discussions have yet to address the complexity and interdependence of cognitive and personality variables in the self-directed learning process (Kasworm, 1983). The bulk of research has been descriptive, portraying persons who are motivated to learn, and who are comfortable being interdependent with objects or persons in the environment. The environment may offer opportunities or pose constraints which test the individual's motivation and adaptive skill. It appears that certain personal qualities of the learner may then mean the difference in persevering and ultimately completing the learning project. Tough (1979) indicated, "Such a person may be marked by the ability to think conditionally about himself and by a lack of confusion or tentativeness about his present self" (p. 64)

The psychosocial theory of ego-stage development formulated by Erik Erikson offered an appropriate conceptual system through which to examine the relationship between personality development and functioning and those assuming responsibility for work-related self-directed learning. The theory has also been seriously examined by those concerned with theory-building relative to female development (Giele, 1982).

Two independent variables, ego-crises resolutions and support from significant others, were derived from Erikson's theory and reflect its psychosocial orientation. According to the theory, each of the eight ego-crises occurring over the life cycle involves a binary conflict (Ego-Stage I: Trust vs. Mistrust) which can be positively or negatively resolved. This study had a particular interest in the type of resolution, namely decisive positive, which self-directed learners had in each of the stages. An individual with decisive positive resolutions should possess the maturity, motivation and adaptive skill requisite for fulfilling the responsibilities of adulthood, including learning related to professional competence.

The concept of mutuality is a second critical feature of the theory. While each ego-stage has its time of ascendancy and crisis, the resolution is made in terms of the cultural-historical context. This study accounted for mutuality in specifying that the professional can identify support from a significant other (spouse, friend, colleague, supervisor); this support was received in relation to the learning project.

While the independent variables originated from psychoanalytic ego psychology, the dependent variable, assuming responsibility for self-directed work-related learning, was derived from the research of self-directed learning. One major focus of previous research pertained to planning the project. Few adults decided the detailed content and planned their project without some kind of assistance. The steps in seeking assistance were so pervasive and important that Tough developed a framework for describing and studying them (1979, p. 109). This framework was modified and expanded, and used as the measure for the dependent variable.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research participants were 42 women in advanced clinical nursing positions, involving consultative, staff development, patient education, administrative, and research functions. Their names were drawn from lists supplied by the Nursing Staff Education Departments of nine hospitals in three southern Wisconsin cities. Of those contacted, four declined to participate.

A combination interview-questionnaire format was used in data collection. Each participant also completed a form consisting of 28 items concerning their personal, professional, and educational background. This form was completed at the time of the interview or the questionnaire administration. Since each required about one hour to complete, most participants chose to meet with the investigator on two separate occasions.

Data regarding ego-crises resolutions were ascertained by administering the Adult Self-Description Questionnaire, a 160-item paper and pencil questionnaire. Responses to the Like-Unlike scale provided a frequency count for each ego-stage, as well as the valence (positive or negative) for each of the resolutions. The instrument yields an ego-stage profile in the form of a ratio for all stages up to the individual's phase-specific stage. Test results support the reliability and validity of the instrument (Boyd and Koskela, 1970).

An ego-crisis resolution was considered desisive if the ratio, when calculated as a decimal, fell in the range $>.60 - <.75$. This is equivalent to 8/5, the lowest factored ratio, signifying that the individual has eight positive and five negative resolutions for that particular stage. This is consistent with Erikson's theory, which described a favorable ratio of resolutions as being essential to mature personality functioning.

Data concerning the independent variable, support of a significant other, was ascertained in Questions 17 - 20 of the interview. The focus was on emotional support, such as providing encouragement in the project. These questions also elicited data on the frequency of support, forms of support, and the meaning of the support in relation to the learning project. Participants were asked to respond on a 1 - 5 scale as to whether they would have pursued the project without the support. These data were important as measures of mutuality, but also in terms of describing women's experience in their careers, especially in regard to support. This phenomenon has been discussed in relation to establishing and maintaining a career. The differential support received by men and women for this task has put women at a distinct disadvantage when it comes to having the time, energy, and committment essential for a professional career (Rosenow, 1982).

Data concerning the dependent variable, assuming responsibility, was ascertained in Questions 10 - 16 of the *Continuing Professional Learning Interview Schedule*. The investigator developed and tested this interview schedule, since few of the studies reported tested interview schedules, and since aspects of this research were unique to the study.

The Interview Schedule consists of 21 questions, whose validity was determined by submitting them to a panel of judges, a group of four nurses recognized for their expertise in continuing education and self-directed learning. Reliability was established through the test-retest technique. Five nurses, only one of whom was currently enrolled in graduate courses, were interviewed by Interviewer #1; 2 - 4 weeks later they were interviewed by Interviewer #2, using the same schedule. In three of the five cases, the same answers were elicited in the two interviews. In one case, different learning projects were elicited in the two interviews. In a fifth case, a learning project was evoked in one interview and not in another. Discussion of the case resulted in clarification of the conceptualization of "work-related" and "self-directed." The different responses were also attributed to the nurse's ambivalence about participating in the second interview, so that responses may have been provided to complete the interview quickly.

In addition to piloting the interview schedule with two interviewers, the five pilot interviews were coded by a panel of four judges. The coding method will also be used in examining six of the 42 interviews from the study. These steps are being taken in concert with the philosophy of science undergirding this research effort. Intersubjectivity, falsification, and consensibility are the central concepts in this philosophy; they have been presented elsewhere (Sexton-House, 1983) and so will not be discussed in detail here.

It should be noted that the *Continuing Professional Learning Interview Schedule* has a different conceptual basis than that developed by Tough. Although he defined a learning project as a sustained, highly deliberate effort to learn (1979), he limited the measurement of a project to the number of hours spent, The central thrust of the definition used in this study was on the extent of voluntariness, and extent of time and initiative required for the project. Self-directed learning is conceptualized as beginning with an experience on the job, followed by attachment to that experience. The result is assessment of professional practice (self-examination) followed by recognition and acceptance of the need to change. This process concludes with the learning project, which is the strategy or design for achieving change.

In this study major hypothesis testing will be performed using the two-sample Wilcoxon, with statistical significance at the $\geq .05$ level.

FINDINGS

Data collection occurred between mid-November, 1983 and mid-January, 1984, consequently only preliminary findings can be provided. All 42 women possess a Master's degree. Their ages ranged from 28 - 56 years (average of 37.9 yrs.). The range of years they have been licensed to practice nursing was 5 - 36 years (average of 14.7 yrs.). Of the 42 cases, 32 or 76% have been in continuous practice full-time since receiving their nursing license. Fourteen report being employed in line positions, while

28 are in staff positions. Thirty-eight or 90.5% report that the individual should have primary responsibility for providing continuing professional education, rather than a professional school, organization, or hospital (employing agency). Thirty-one or 73.8% report that continuing to learn enables them to grow professionally and personally, rather than keep up to date, gain needed competencies, or "talk shop" with other nurses. Twenty-five or 59.5% report that, in order to gain the expertise they want in their present position, they turn most often to a nursing peer, rather than to an administrator, supervisor, or other person.

In contrast with other studies of self-directed learning, this study identified individuals who had no learning project, and were not assuming responsibility for their project at this time. The important event or situation spurring assessment of practice, and ultimately triggering their learning project, had to do with a change of position, a new person in a key position (head nurse, Nursing Director, Medical Director) joining the organization, and position assignments which clashed with role definition and philosophy of practice. One outcome of the study may be a typology of events triggering specific learning projects.

SUMMARY/DISCUSSION

While no conclusions can be offered pending complete data analysis, it is possible to discuss some ideas following preliminary analysis. Some learning projects involved the development of interpersonal skills to effectively relate with key personnnl in the organization. While progress can be made learning on one's own, it may also be helpful to participate in formal education activities. Continuing education programs sponsored by a professional school or association would, in these cases, be preferred over those sponsored by the employing agency. This would insure confidentiality and open discussion of issues and problems. This study, then, would seem to support a diversity of continuing education providers.

Since the unique focus of this study was work-related self-directed learning, two factors seemed to emerge as important: the organizational context of work and learning, and the history of nursing as a profession. Hospital schools of nursing were enormously influential to the development of the nursing role (Ashley, 1976). Dependency and stifling of nursing leadership resulted from nurses being primarily accountable to hospital administrators and physicians. Some interviews indicated that this is a contemporary and complex problem among advanced nurses, who function in expanded nursing and leadership roles.

Some learning projects could be characterized as organizational learning, involving examination of an espoused theory or theory-in-use (Argyris, 1974). They discussed their skills in relation to the goals and personnel on their unit of the hospital, not apart from them. This would seem to support a view of education, and self-direction and quality work are coterminous (Torbert,1978).

This research indicates that the study of women's experiences of their lives in their own terms can enrich our understanding of both adult development and adult education.

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EVALUATION IN ADULT EDUCATION: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LITERATURE THROUGH 1983

by
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Introduction

Evaluation, particularly program evaluation, has been a topic of interest to adult education scholars and practitioners for several decades. In fact, a study of the literature reveals that adult educators were concerned about evaluation of educational programs at least a decade prior to the proliferation of models spawned by the requirements of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 (Worthen and Sanders, 1973). Evaluation is clearly a central concern in program planning. A study completed by Buskey and Sork (1982) revealed that only five of ninety planning models reviewed failed to address evaluation as a component of program planning.

The intent of this study was to both classify and evaluate literature on evaluation in adult education so that students, researchers, and practitioners could access documents which are relevant to their work. This study is unlike other analyses of the evaluation literature in that an explicit analytical framework was used as a basis for comparing and contrasting the publications. The results of the analysis are presented in charts which resemble the product comparison summaries found in such publications as Consumer Reports and Canadian Consumer. This approach to analysis has two advantages over the more common narrative review. First, it makes explicit the dimensions of analysis considered useful in comparing and contrasting various pieces of literature. This practice promotes careful consideration of which characteristics of the literature should be used to make judgments of theoretical or practical utility. Second, it reveals the individual characteristics of each piece of literature which form the basis for generalizations about the "state of the art." The strengths and weaknesses of each document are made public rather than remaining the private intellectual property of the analyst.

In preparing for this analysis, an attempt was made to identify all literature relevant to adult education that had a primary or sole focus on evaluation. Although this goal was impossible to achieve, it guided the search for and selection of literature. Note that some literature included in this study was not written with the field of adult education in mind. Those publications are included because they incorporate ideas relevant to

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[1] Space limitations would not allow printing of the complete analysis in the Proceedings. Copies of the complete analysis, and a bibliography of publications included in the analysis, can be obtained from the author: Thomas J. Sork, Assistant Professor, Adult Education Research Centre, 5760 Toronto Road, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, CANADA, V6T 1L2.

The Analytical Framework

An inductive analysis of samples from this literature suggested that eight dimensions were useful for describing and differentiating works on evaluation. Five of the dimensions were categorized as descriptive, and provide a basis for selecting literature with characteristics relevant to the setting and tasks of interest to the reader. Three of the dimensions were categorized as evaluative, and can be used to differentiate publications based on qualitative factors which limit or enhance their utility for specific users. In the following sections these dimensions will be described and a rationale provided for their inclusion in the analysis.

1. Descriptive Dimensions

a. **Planning context**. This dimension refers to the environment, situation, or organizational structure to which the literature seemed most relevant. **Planning context** was judged to be an important descriptive dimension because variations in context can affect the utility of concepts and processes. Users of the analysis may wish to first concentrate on literature most relevant to their context, then progress to literature in other contexts.

b. **Emphasis**. The emphasis of the publication refers to the primary contribution is makes to an understanding of evaluation. Some authors focus on clarifying concepts associated with evaluation; some focus on describing procedures for conducting evaluations; some give equal attention to both. **Emphasis** was judged to be an important descriptive dimension because someone wishing to do an evaluation may wish to select literature with a focus on procedures while someone interested in evaluation as a concept would focus on literature with that emphasis. The emphasis of a publication is not always apparent from its title.

c. **Level of evaluation addressed**. Kirkpatrick (1967) makes useful distinctions between four levels of evaluation. Reaction represents the feelings participants, and others involved in the program, have about the experience. Learning represents the new capabilities acquired by program participants. Behavior represents the external manifestation of the new capabilities, usually as applied in the learner's natural environment. Results represents the impact that the new behaviors have on the learner and the environment surrounding the learner. **Level of evaluation** was considered an important descriptive dimension because users may be interested in only one or two specific types of outcomes, and can go directly to the literature which addresses their interest.

adult education settings.

There are two limitations to this study which should be noted. The first is that the literature selected for analysis deals only, or primarily, with evaluation. Not included were publications which addressed the entire planning process since these were included in an earlier study (Buskey and Sork, 1982). The second limitation is that the judgments reported in the analytical summary were made by only one person. Ideally, members of a jury would have read, classified, and evaluated each piece of literature. Then a set of decision rules could have been applied to reconcile differences of opinion. Such a method, although more desirable than the one used, was judged to be not feasible due to the large body of literature involved.

Summary of Previous Analyses

This study, although somewhat unique in its approach, is only one of several analyses of evaluation literature conducted in the past twenty years. Those considered of particular relevance to adult education are included in the analytical summary, but will be mentioned here because of their special contribution to understanding this component of program planning. The publications identified below are not all strictly broad reviews of the literature, but all use published literature as the "data" from which generalizations and conclusions are drawn.

One of the first, and most complete, comparative analyses of approaches to evaluation was completed by Worthen and Sanders (1973). This book contains reprints of many of the seminal pieces of writing contributed by such well-known theorists as Stufflebeam, Stake, Scriven, and Cronbach. In all, eight "contemporary evaluation models" are compared on twelve "selected characteristics." Those with a particular interest in the evaluation models developed in response to the ESEA of 1965 would find this book essential reading. In the same year, the Educational Resources Information Centers' Clearinghouse on Adult Education published a similar book, but with an emphasis on evaluating programs for the disadvantaged adult (Steele, 1974). In this volume no fewer than fifty-eight "contemporary approaches to program evaluation" were described and compared.

Of more recent vintage are three analytical reviews prepared by Stufflebeam and Webster (1981), Brookfield (1982), and Nevo (1983). The contribution by Stufflebeam and Webster suggests there are thirteen fundamental approaches to evaluation design, and provides an analysis based on seven descriptive characteristics. Brookfield provides historical perspective, discussing major developments in evaluation theory from Tyler's *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* to more recent proposals for "naturalistic evaluation." Nevo reviews the evaluation literature using an analytical framework consisting of ten descriptive dimensions, each presented as a question related to one characteristic of the approach. Other more modest efforts to analyze the evaluation literature will be found in the analytical summary.

d. **Type of evaluation emphasized**. Scriven (1973) has made a distinction between two types of evaluation. *Formative evaluation* is directed toward improving the "product" while it is being developed or in process. Results are primarily of interest to those who are responsible for developing and refining the "product." *Summative evaluation* is directed toward assessing the worth of the final product. Results are primarily of interest to those who purchase, use or support the "product." **Type of evaluation** was considered an important descriptive dimension because the purposes and procedures for the two are quite distinct, although they should be of equal concern to the program planner.

e. **Data collection procedures discussed**. Data collection is an important part of the evaluation process. Many publications contain descriptions of useful data collection procedures and these are identified in the analytical summary. Including such information in the analysis was judged useful because data collection is one of the necessary tasks of evaluation, and users of the analysis might like to read about specific procedures for doing so.

2. Evaluative Dimensions

a. **Theoretical framework**. Some authors of evaluation literature include *explicit* theoretical frameworks which attempt to explain why evaluation should be viewed in a particular way, or why they should be carried out in a particular manner. Others simply describe a perspective or technique without providing any explanation of why it should be accepted. This dimension was considered important because some users may desire only a how-to-do-it, cookbook-like approach, while others may be more interested in the concepts, assumptions, and principles underlying a particular approach to evaluation. Including this dimension allows users to select literature which contains a appropriate amount of theoretical explanation. The following scale was used to represent the degree to which a piece of literature contains an *explicit* theoretical framework: *not present* or *not addressed* means the writer made no attempt to explain why a perspective or technique should be adopted. A rating of *low* means the writer made some effort to explain why a perspective or technique should be adopted, but the evidence/argument was rather weak. A *medium* rating means the writer made a clear effort to provide such explanation, and the evidence/argument seemed reasonable although not extensive. A *high* rating means the evidence/argument provided by the author was extensive.

b. **Generalizability**. Some authors illustrate perspectives or procedures which may be quite useful, but only in a specific setting. Others write of perspectives or procedures which appear to be potentially useful in a wide variety of settings. This dimension was considered important because users of evaluation literature may wish to know whether the ideas found in a publication are applicable only in a limited context, or whether the ideas can be applied in a broad range of planning contexts. The following scale was used to represent the degree to which the ideas presented were generalizable. A low rating means the ideas apply only in the context described or assumed by the author. A medium rating means the ideas could be applied in a limited number of closely related settings. A high rating means the ideas can be applied in a wide range of program situations.

c. **Comprehensiveness of evaluation tasks**. In order to plan and carry out an evaluation, several tasks must be accomplished. For this analysis, six such tasks were identified and a judgment made of how much guidance was provided by the author to help the reader complete each task. The tasks were:

1. Deciding what objects will be evaluated.
2. Deciding what evidence will be collected.
3. Deciding how to collect the evidence.
4. Deciding how to develop criteria.
5. Deciding how final judgments will be made.
6. Deciding how results will be utilized.

The following scale was used to represent the degree to which the author provided guidance on how to complete the tasks: not present or (not addressed) means the writer provided no guidance. A low rating means the writer provided some guidance, but it was not judged sufficient to assure successful completion of the task. A medium rating means the writer provided sufficient detail to complete the task in a single prescribed fashion, but did not offer alternative means to complete the task. A high rating means the writer provided sufficient detail so that the task could be completed by using two or more alternative approaches.

Process Used to Complete Analysis

After completing a broad-based literature search, which included the ERIC system, each document was reviewed to determine if it met the criteria for inclusion in the analysis. An initial judgment of planning context was made for each document. The publications were then grouped by planning context and each document was then read in detail. After reading each document, judgments were made and recorded on analytical summary sheets.

Information contained on the analytical summary sheets represents only one product of this study. Some of the insights gained by systematically analyzing this rather broad literature will be discussed at the paper session, and can be obtained by writing to the author.

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A Phenomenology[1] of Empowerment and Transformation: A Meditation Toward Research into Essential Structures in Adult Education

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Introduction

Adult educators often claim that empowerments of persons and transformations of personal lives are two vital goals of adult learning. It is important to understand what these claims really mean. For example, precisely what is an empowerment in a person's life? What is a transformation of a person and personal behavior in adult lives in the most essential sense?

If empowerment and transformation in adult lives can be clarified then avenues leading toward their achievement can be created through adult education. We all know of striking examples of these programs, but what are the underlying structures which are essential to each?

If claims about the importance of empowerment and transformation are valid then fundamental research should attest this fact. This research should also be central to the construction of processes and programs which lead toward those goals.

The most essential steps in this research are always the reflective moves clarifying the basic concepts used in testing out the foundations and commitments of the research problems and programs. This, too, is vital experimentation. I propose to perform this kind of experiment through a phenomenological model of research. I shall do it in the manner of a first person account in the firm and tested belief that other persons may move through the essential foundational structures of his or her own research programs and problems in closely similar ways. We both do it along meditative lines.

First, I clarify what power and empowerment mean in most essential terms for adults. Second, I clarify what transformation means in the most essential terms for adults. Finally, I show how these two concepts are uniquely bound together, how they can be used toward a richer understanding of what adult personhood is and can be, and how research problems and programs grounded in this renewed understanding can be developed.

Power and Empowerment

There may be many kinds of power. Surely the term 'power' is used in quite different ways. When the term is used in special reference to persons, however, power is one's ability to do something, or to act upon a person, an object, or in terms of some idea. My power is my physical, mental, or moral strength, might, or vigor. It is a process through which my energy and character are expressed. My power is my physical, mental, or moral strength, might, or vigor. It is a process through which my energy and character are expressed. My power is an enabling process, the activating and originating process in my animate being. My power is a kind of control I have, or my command over something, such as specific activities in my everyday world. It is a kind of domination, rule, influence, and authority which I have. My power, in certain circumstances, might be influence, and authority which I have. My power, in certain circumstances, might be influence in the form of political ascendancy as in exercising influence in the government in the form

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of political ascendancy, as in exercisinig influence in the government of a in exercising influence in the government of a city or country. My power may be legal ability, capacity, or authority to act, especially in the sense of delegated authority, commission, or faculty.

To empower me is to invest me formally or even legally with power or authority, or to authorize me as having a certain power or powers. It is to impart or to bestow power on me toward some end or for some specific purpose. To empower me is to enable to make me powerful or more powerful in some respect. My empowerment is either (or both) an action which gives some power to me, or it is my state of having a specifiable power of some kind and in some degree.

Knowing how to read and write are empowerments, for example. When my teachers assisted me toward knowledge and understanding in some degree they led me toward the possession of degrees and kinds of powers. My baccalaureate degree attests that I have completed successfully a prescribed course of study within an institution, and it presents me to the world as one who is entitled to all the rights and privileges appertaining to that degree. This is a paradigm case of a community's empowerment of one of its own.

Some persons within any community of persons are said to be professionals, skilled persons, and experts especially competent in their performances. Professionals have a determinate occupation within which they profess and practice their special skills, and they apply their arts, crafts, sciences, techniques and technologies in their own lives and in the lives of others. Even if some professionals have not received certifying and licensing attestations they may still be seen as competent, as persons with special powers, fit, appropriate, and proper to the performance of circumscribed activities and tasks. Their powers are suitable to these tasks, sufficient to their performance. Even if not formally licensed, these persons are competent or skilled in their powers of performance. They are capable of accomplishing something with sufficient precision, practical knowledge, ability, cleverness, and expertness. They are skilled. And some are experts, or persons with special powers within their community. The knowledge they have is their power within the community. How did they— how do I— move through the stages of possessing power(s) to the stage of having power(s) at hand?

Possessing Power and Having Power at Hand

Francis Bacon claimed that knowledge is power. But this claim is ambiguous. Are the two absolutely equal? Are the two in fact one? They appear to be neither equal nor one. My powers to see, hear, smell, taste, and touch are not knowledge per se, but my seeing objects, hearing sounds, smelling pleasant odors, tasting sour qualities, and touching rough surfaces clearly invoke my perceptions, my processes of knowing, and my states of knowledge. My power is not exactly my knowledge, although my knowledge is at least a kind of power. Knowledge is essentially power, whatever else it may be. A certain kind of power is the essence of my knowledge. Therefore, investigation of knowledge and of processes of coming to know anything at all is necessarily investigation of a certain process of gaining certain powers and of thereby coming into certain empowerments.

The act of knowing is an enabling act. My knowing something enables me to do something. It is entirely appropriate in the context of adult education to discuss knowing and knowledge and their relevance to the empowerment of persons and the transformations of personal lives. One of the richest discussions of the problem of knowledge in Western epistemology is found in the passages of Plato's Theaetetus which are known as the 'simile of the aviary'. These passages (and indeed the Theaetetus as a whole) should be mastered by all adult educators who claim to do both the practice and the theory of adult education. These passages are also a tutorial in self-learning, self-knowledge, and self-empowerment. Insofar as research into any discipline, any cluster of research problems and programs, requires that persons come to know ever more reflectively, and through radical self-reflection and self-knowledge, the contributions of the Theaetetus are unsurpassed in perspicuity.

I now concentrate upon these passages with some changes as italicized and as indicated. The changes are effected toward the pedagogical end of focusing upon the special power which knowledge essentially is.[2] The move from that power which knowledge is to that power held in hand by persons whom knowledge has transformed should become clear.

SOCRATES. Well, you have heard what 'empowering' is commonly said to be?
THEAETETUS. Possibly; but I don't remember at the moment.
SOCR. They say it is 'having power'.
THEAET. True.
SOCR. Let us make a slight amendment and say: 'possessing power'.
THEAET. What difference would you say that makes?
SOCR. None, perhaps; but let me tell you my idea and you shall help me test it.
THEAET. I will if I can.
SOCR. 'Having' seems to me different from 'possessing'. If a man has bought a coat and owns it, but is not wearing it, we should say he possesses it without having it about him.
THEAET. True.
SOCR. Now consider whether power is a thing you can possess in that way without having it about you, like a man who has caught some wild birds--pigeons or what not--and keeps them in an aviary he has made for them at home. In a sense, of course, we might say he 'has' them all the time inasmuch as he possesses them, mightn't we?
THEAET. Yes.
SOCR. But in another sense he 'has' none of them, though he has got control of them, now that he has made them captive in an enclosure of his own; he can take and have hold of them whenever he likes by catching any bird he chooses, and let them go again; and it is open to him to do that as often as he pleases.
THEAET. That is so.
SOCR. Once more then, just as a while ago we imagined a sort of waxen block in our minds, so now let us suppose that every mind contains a kind of aviary stocked with birds of every sort, some in flocks apart from the rest, some in small groups, and some solitary, flying in any direction among them all.
THEAET. Be it so. What follows?
SOCR. When we are babies we must suppose this receptacle empty, and take the birds to stand for pieces of power. Whenever a person acquires any piece of power and shuts it up in his enclosure, we must say he has learnt or discovered the thing of which that is the power, and that is what 'empowering' means.
THEAET. Be it so.
SOCR. Now think of him hunting once more for any piece of power that he wants, catching and holding it, and letting it go again. In what terms are we to describe that--the same that we used of the original process of acquisition, or different ones? An illustration may help you to see what I mean. There is a science you call 'arithmetic'.
THEAET. Yes.
SOCR. Conceive that, then, as a chase after pieces of power about all the numbers, odd or even.
THEAET. I will.
SOCR. That, I take it, is the science in virtue of which a man has in his

control pieces of power about numbers and can hand them over to someone else.

THEAET. Yes.

SOCR. And when he hands them over, we call it 'teaching', and when the other takes them from him, that is 'learning', and when he has them in the sense of possessing them in that aviary of his, that is 'empowering'.

THEAET. Certainly.

SOCR. Now observe what follows. The finished arithmetician knows all numbers, doesn't he? There is no number the power of which is not in his mind.

THEAET. Naturally.

SOCR. And such a person may sometimes count either the numbers themselves in his own head or some set of external things that have a number.

THEAET. Of course.

SOCR. And by counting we shall mean simply trying to find out what some particular number amounts to?

THEAET. Yes.

SOCR. It appears, then, that the man who, as we admitted, empowers every number, is trying to find out what he empowers as if he had no power of it. No doubt you sometimes hear puzzles of that sort debated.

THEAET. Indeed I do.

SOCR. Well, our illustration from hunting pigeons and getting possession of them will enable us to explain that the hunting occurs in two ways:; first, before you possess your pigeon in order to have possession of it; secondly, after getting possession of it, in order to catch and hold in your hand what you have already possessed for some time. In the same way, if you have long possessed pieces of power about things you have learnt and empower, it is still possible to get to empower the same things again, by the process of recovering the power of some particular thing and getting hold of it. It is power you have possessed for some time, but you had not got it handy in your mind.

THEAET. True.

SOCR. That, then, was the drift of my question, what terms should be used to describe the arithmetician who sets about counting or the literate person who sets about reading; because it seemed as if, in such a case, the man was setting about learning again from himself what he already empowered.

THEAET. That sounds odd, Socrates.

SOCR. Well, but can we say he is going to read or count something he does not empower, when we have already granted that he empowers all the letters or all the numbers?

THEAET. no, that is absurd too.

SOCR. Shall we say, then, that we care nothing about words, if it amuses anyone to turn and twist the expressions 'empowering' and 'learning'? Having drawn a distinction between possessing power and having it about one, we agree that it is impossible not to possess what one does possess, and so we avoid the result that a man should not empower what he does empower, but we say that it is possible for him to get hold of a false judgment about it. For he may not have about him the power of that thing, but a different piece of power instead, if it so happens that, in hunting for some particular piece of power among those that are fluttering about, he misses it and catches hold of a different one. In that case, you see, he mistakes 11 for 12, because he has caught hold of the power of 11 that is inside him, instead of his power of 12, as he might catch a dove in place of a pigeon.

THEAET. That seems reasonable.

SOCR. Whereas, when he catches the piece of power he is trying to catch, he is not mistaken but thinks what is true. In this way both true and false judgments can exist, and the obstacles that were troubling us are removed. You will agree to this, perhaps? Or will you not?

THEAET. I will.

SOCR. Yes; for now we are rid of the contradiction about people not *empowering* what they do *empower*. That no longer implies our not possessing what we do possess, whether we are mistaken about something or not.

The Transformation of a Person

My life is and has a shape and a structure of contours. I present my life in various ways. The everydayness of my life is known through its forms, through the manner in which I perform and express my competencies. In philosophy, especially in traditions stemming principally from Plato, (and in other[3]), the form of my life may be seen as the more intrinsic and essential nature of who I really am and what I really do, as distinct from what I only appear to be and the ways in which I am seen by others.

To transform my life is to move me from a certain clustering form and structure of contours of the essential form of my life through to another structure of contours, to move beyond the former. The latter then is said to transcend and surpass the former.

I, a solitary person, owe much to others, but what they offer me through their specializations and their competencies — what they offer me through their own empowerments — as established by their insights, and their tests of my competencies and performance, is for me at first only something they claim will empower me as well. If I am to accept these powers as empowerments, I must justify each of them by a perfect insight on my part.[4] My justification of my powers, my own enabling processes in my everyday world, concretizes my empowerments. I have moved from an indeterminate situation of not knowing that I did not have the power which knowing something could give me to knowing that I did not have this special power. But I have moved further, from knowing that I possessed the power to actually having it and holding it in hand. These stages mark the articulation of my radicalizing self-empowerment and thereby some of the stages of my transformation as a person.

Empowerment and Transformation: The Research Program

Phenomenology is fundamentally a way of criticism in any discipline. The criticism may be of fundamental assumptions and presuppositions, of scientific models of observation and perception, of hypotheses, of verificational and falsificational testing and processes, and of conclusions and applications of specific research. This criticism is founded in one's own radical self-criticism, wherein — as both Descartes and Husserl claimed — one's own perfecting insights must ultimately be sought and discovered.

The unique and most relevant research program uniquely presented by this phenomenology of empowerment and transformation of persons' accounts of individual persons' felt and experienced autobiographical accounts of (1) the indeterminateness of their situation of not (or not yet) knowing that they do not (or did not) have the essential power(s) which specific and relevant knowledge might give them; (2) the originating, motivating, and shaping tentative moves toward gaining these powers through relevant knowledge; (3) empowerments which emerge as states of personal being and new being as emergent from knowing that I know that I have these powers. These stages can be exfoliated as needed for specific and more detailed research.

As these kinds of narrative accounts come in those adults presenting them have become radically self-aware and therby transformed in and through relevant empowerments. Two kinds of research have thus emerged: (1) one's own personal criticisms of previous selves now becoming transformed and (2) the more objectifying kinds of search performed by others working both upon their own felt and experienced autobiographical accounts *and* on those of many other persons as well. What a emerges from these fundamental phenomenological critiques of 'where I have stood but now stand' is almost any one of the kinds of specific research programs of critical interest to adult educators generally.

Notes

[1] "Phenomenology is, in the 20th century, mainly the name for a philosophical movement whose primary objective is the direct investigation and description of phenomena as consciously experienced, without theories about their causal explanation and as free as possible from unexamined preconceptions and presuppositions." Herbert Spiegelberg, "Phenomenology," *Encyclopedia Britannica*, Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc., 1973.

[2] Plato, *Theaetetus*, 197A - 199C, tr. Francis M. Conford, *Plato's Theory of Knowledge*, Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1957, pp. 131 - 135. In the text I have substituted and italicized as follows: 'empowering' for 'knowing'; 'power' for 'knowledge'; 'empowers' for 'knows'; 'empower' for 'know'; and 'empowered' for 'knew'.

[3] Cf. Ludwig Wittgenstein's notion of a person as a 'form of life'. See Dallas M. High, *Language, Persons, and Belief*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1967, pp. 102 - 103: "For Wittgenstein, language is intimately bound to the concept 'man' or 'persons'. This is in part, at least, what Wittgenstein means by the notion 'form of life'. The phrase 'form of life' functions as a logically primitive concept. To speak or to do things with words other than what we do (past, present, and future) is logically not imaginable. There is no situation logically more primitive. The point is reached and the 'spade is turned'; 'Then I am inclined to say: "This is simply what I do."' The 'human condition' is not a barrier to language and knowledge; rather, it is the *conditio sine qua non* for all modalities of meaning and comprehension, and, therefore, the condition of language and knowledge . . . .

The inclination to divide off certain kinds of activities as constituting a 'form of life' is what is to be avoided. Deduction and induction, too, are involved in what is meant by 'form of life.' I purposely use the blessedlyl vague word 'involved' since the point I wish to underscore is not to say that logic or rationality is a 'form of life' (though the practice of rationality might be) or simply that persons and their actions are logical or rational; rather it is to say that what counts as logical and rational (e.g. deduction and induction) is dependent upon the human 'form of life' and what is done by persons. Concerning the related concept, 'justification', Wittgenstein puts it this way: 'What people accept as a justification -- is shown by how they think and life.'" . . . .

[4] I owe this insight to Edmund Husserl, and through him to Descartes. Cf. the former's *Cartesian Meditations*, tr. Dorion Cairns, The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 1960, p. 2: "If someone were to object that, on the contrary, science, philosophy, takes its rise in the cooperative labor of the scientific community of philosophers and, at each level, acquires its perfection only therein, Descartes' answer might well be: I, the solitary individual philosophizer, owe much to others; but what they accept as true, what they offer me as allegedly established by their insight, is for me at first only something they claim. If I am to accept it, I must justify it by a perfect insight on my own part. Therein consists my autonomy -- mine and that of every genuine scientist."

Intellectual and Experiential Origins of Paul Bergevin's A Philosophy for Adult Education

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Paul Bergevin's A Philosophy of Adult Education is part of a genre of adult education philosophical literature that includes such works as Eduard Lindeman's The Meaning of Adult Education, Everett Dean Martin's The Meaning of Liberal Education, J. K. Hart's Adult Education, Harry Overstreet's The Mature Mind, Lyman Bryson's The Drive Toward Reason, Horace Kallen's Philosophical Issues in Adult Education, and John Walker Powell's Education for Maturity. These and other works from a canan of adult education philosophical literature that is often quoted and used as "authorities" to support positions. Bergevin's work, too, is frequently cited in the literature, and he has been named as an important contributor to adult education in the survey studies that appear occasionally. Yet there has been no critical analysis of this work with regard to the central ideas that Bergevin addresses or its relation to the mainstream of adult education thought.

This paper examines (1) the circumstances in which the book was written, Bergevin's purpose in writing the book, and the principal ideas about the definition, principles, and organizational structure of adult education that the book addresses, (2) the intellectual sources that Bergevin drew upon for his basic ideas, and (3) the experiences at Indiana University that shapped Bergevin's thinking about the philosophy of adult education. The principal sources of data were interviews with Bergevin and two of his close associates at Indiana University, John McKinley and Robert Smith, Bergevin's publications, writings of persons Bergevin attributed as influencing his thinking, and selected accounts of the Bureau of Studies in Adult Education at Indiana University which Bergevin directed from 1947-1972.

Circumstances, Purpose, and Ideas

Bergevin wrote A Philosophy for Adult Education during several summers that he and Mrs. Bergevin spent in Fredericksburg, Virginia, in the early 1960s. What Bergevin presents here is not spectulative philosophy but the distillation of ideas, concepts, and procedural guidelines about adult education that had been theoretically projected and then operationally tested over a twenty year period in Indiana communities. Bergevin had previously set forth his philosophy of adult education in two pamphlets published in 1949 and 1953, each time refining his own ideas about how the idea of adult education as a process of lifelong learning could be implemented. What he sought to achieve in this book was "to establish a common point of reference, an integrated viewpoint, toward certain beliefs, ideas, attitudes, and practices" about adult education (p. 3). Such a perspective was important to Bergevin, for he believed that you had to begin with a philosophy, then method followed.

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Adult education, Bergevin held, derived its purposes from particular views about the social order and the relationship of individuals to that order. Bergevin took as his main explanatory concept the concept of the civilizing process. By civilizing process, Bergevin meant that the environment—the social order—shaped persons. When the effects of society upon a person were positive, then the civilizing process occured. Societies evolved, he believed, from barbarism to refinement of taste and culture. A person can only become a person within the social order. Hence Bergevin never got caught up in separating individual development from social development. If persons were to contribute to this civilizing process, they had to know where society was going. Each adult had to understand and deal with "value systems, the corporate nature of society, personal responsibility and privilege, and the nature of the individual and the group" (p. 9). To participate effectively in a free society, adults needed vocational direction and security, spiritual support, knowledge of the world he is a part and its culture, and knowledge about himself and his fellow man. To help adults be a part of things, the liberal arts subjects were critically important (pp. 12-13), adults had to know the heritage of the western world and contemporary thought.

There were two basic directions that adult education could pursue. One philosophy held that there are unalterable truths and prearranged conclusions that adults should be taught. Such a belief was common in American society as evidenced by the actions of various social institutions, advertisers, and government. Such a philosophy was a totalitarian philosophy: the adult learner was not to be involved in the search for truth. The second philosophy held that truth was complex, hard to come by, and the learner may have to remain in a state of suspension. Such a philosophy was a democratic philosophy. Bergevin made much use of the term "the democratic way of life." To Bergevin democracy occupied the middle ground between dictatorship and anarchy. Freedom had to be balanced with discipline, individual responsibilities with corporate responsibilities, and citizen rights with citizen responsibilities.

The structure for achieving these goals was through existing social institutions. All institutions of society are adult education institutions regardless of what else they are, but they too often neglect this function or education in specialities and neglect the whole person. Bergevin held that every institution of society should be a "school for maturity" (my phrase). Because all adults were members of social institutions, their most immediate and accessible motivation for learning grew out of their functional relationships in these institutions. The institutional approach to adult education was the controlling idea of the Indiana experiment.

Three kinds of problems impeded the achievement of these goals and the evolution of this structure. One problem had to do with social institutions. Institutions and persons take refuge in the protection of material possessions, fail "to develop a value system that nutures the human creative spirit, behave as socially isolated specialist" (pp. 71-72). What is needed is an integration of concern for problems related to work and those related to "personal maturation and the civilizing process." A second problem was the disposition of adults. Progress toward the civilizing process, Bergevin contended, was hindered by self-centeredness and pride. Some citizens did not assume their responsibilities for the social order; some marginal citizens did not because they were emotionally and economically incapacitated. A third problem was with the organization of adult education programs themselves. Adult education programs failed to develop in adults an understanding of themselves and their relationships to others because the programs concentrated on subject matter not on the adult learners and the subject matter in relation to the larger social life. Adults resisted change, and adult educators had to understand the nature of the adult as a learner and be able to design learning programs that promote change.

These problems inhibited the achievement of the broad social goals of adult education. Bergevin identified several concepts to guide developing and conducting programs that will "help adults see themselves as maturing beings seeking wholeness" (p. 115). These twelve concepts can be summarized in three major themes. First, effective programming for adults has to be based on an accurate understanding of the nature of adults as learners. Adults can learn but are often inhibited from learning because of negative social attitudes, self-imposed bondages, fear of failure, and belief that learning in adulthood is not important. Second, adult education programs have to be indigenous to the environment, social mores, and cultural values of the people. The adult educator has to respect the value system of the people, work within that value system to help adults manage their lives more effectively, and avoids imposing "superior knowledge" from some external source such as the university. Third, programming was a cooperative act in which the learner's engagement in the process is as important as the content. In this process, learners should be involved in identifying their learning needs, setting goals, and reconciling their expectations about the program with those of the program planners.

Bergevin described three meanings of the term adult education. One meaning was random experiential learning: learning that occured in the course of living without planning. A second meaning was systematically organized programs. These included institutional sponsored programs under the direction of an educational agent, independent study to be pursued through correspondence or on one's own, and participation training. Participation training introduced a third form of adult learning: learning how to learn. Participation Training was a training design developed by Bergevin and his colleague at Indiana, John McKinley. Participation Training for Bergevin was a microcosm of institutional and community life in which adults learned to be responsible for their learning, for their relationships with other people, and for being socially responsible in achieving a common task. Through this method, Bergevin staked his hopes of implementing his philosophy of adult education. This vision of a learning environment for adults informed his understanding of the programming process. It was a vision of democracy in which persons practiced freedom of expression with discipline, communicated their ideas and feelings and helped their fellow learners to communicate, and assumed responsibility for a common task, each contributing according to this abilities and the needs of the group.

The third meaning of adult education was that of a field of study. Bergevin described adult education as a discipline and as a field of study, using these terms interchangably. He had no doubts that adult education had a rightful place in the university and that adult education had a unique body of knowledge about adult learning. Adult education as a field of study also involved training others to practice adult education according to knowledge about adult learning. Bergevin believed that society had evolved so that organized learning opportunities for adults were needed and that persons trained in adult education theory and methods were needed to give direction to these educative opportunities.

The primary competence of the adult educator was that of diagnosing problems of living and working, translating those problems into educational needs, and assisting persons to design and conduct programs to meet those needs, and training adults to manage their own learning.

Intellectual Origins

Bergevin's philosophy for adult education had its intellectual origin in four principal sources. One source was the philosophy and theory of adult education articulated by the American Association for Adult Education (AAAE) that was still in existence when Bergevin began the university phase of his career in adult education in 1947. The AAAE held that the various social institutions had responsibility for adult education, and the AAAE sought to promote this through community councils, a method adopted from social work. Another approach advocated by other adult educators held that adults were motivated to learn because of community problems. Bergevin tried his hand at community organization but by 1953 had begun to concentrate the work of his staff on working within institutions to promote adult education. Most adults belonged to institutions and thus could be reached for education more easily there. Furthermore, problems arising from their functions in these institutions provided a higher level of interest and motivation than community problems.

A second source was adult education theorists. Early in his work at Indiana University Bergevin began to read the writings of three persons who more than any others shaped his conception of adult education. One can see in Bergevin's philosophy echoes of Lindeman's The Meaning of Adult Education (1926) and his ideas of adult education treating adult experience and situations, of the emphasis on freedom and creative expression, of the use of resources, and of the group discussion method. And from Lindeman's part of The Democratic Way of Life (1951) Bergevin derived ideas for how the democratic ideal could be implemented. Bergevin heard Harry Overstreet speak at Chautauqua and read Harry Overstreet's book on The Mature Mind (1949) that set forth the concept of maturity and analyzed the forces that shape human lives, two themes that run through A Philosophy for Adult Education. Early in his Indiana career he discovered N. F. S. Grundtvig, the father of the Danish Folk High School. From Grundtvig and the Danish experiment in adult education Bergevin saw the power of adult education, indigenous to the people, to transfrom a culture.

The third source were certain theories of learning. Bergevin learned much from group discussion and group dynamics literature though he was not much impressed with sensitivity training, which he believed placed too much on free expression of feelings without discipline, was often too therapeutic, and made use of jargon words that most adults did not understand. But the principal source of his learning theory was Nathaniel Cantor's The Dynamics of Learning (1947). Cantor, a sociologist at the University of Buffalo, had experimented with how to help college students take responsibility for their own learning and how to use social science concepts to understand their own personal and social values. The theory of learning that emerged from this experiment posited a dual nature to the learner who wants to assert independence by maintaining old ideas and resist incorporating new ideas and to be dependent by accepting the new ideas. Learning then is a process of handling resistance to new ideas that threaten to change one's cherished values and beliefs. This learning process lies at the central of Participation Training.

The fourth source of Bergevin's philosophy was political theory. Bergevin had read deeply in political theory, and his course on "The Democratic Idea in Adult Education," the first approved course in Adult Education at Indiana University, centered on the study of political theorists in western society. Among the testbooks for this course were Aristotle's Politics, Marx's Capital, and Roussea's Social Contract. Other theorists were also studied. Of particular influence on Bergevin was Aristotle's Politics, especially Aristotle's concern for the good citizen, the aims of the state, and the kind of education necessary to maintain the state. Bergevin believed that the nature and purposes of adult education could only be determined in relation to the kind of social order one wanted. In his readings and experience, the democratic idea provided the best model for a social order.

Experiential Origins

Bergevin's intellectual interests were always directed toward application, and his Philosophy for Adult Education reflects his service and developmental research program at Indiana University. Bergevin did not write books about books. The ideas presnted in Philosophy for Adult Education were field tested in Indiana communities and institutions.

Bergevin began evolving his ideas about adult education in his position as Director of Adult and Vocational Education in the Anderson, Indiana, public school system from 1936-1947. At Anderson Bergevin began to institute programs to teach adults how to work together and to learn subject matter at the same time. He conducted training institutes in group discussion in industrial settings, and by 1947 when he moved to Indiana University, he had conducted 400 of these institutes. At Anderson Bergevin also began to study systematically the principles of effective program management through the development of an apprenticeship program, his work as Director of War Production Training for Madison County, and his doctoral dissertation research on principles of apprenticeship training. Bergevin also recognized that "social training" should be included in apprenticeship programs. Training in work skills was insufficient for adults who spent much of their life as citizens and not as workers.

Bergevin joined the Public Services and Adult Education Division at Indiana University in 1947 as director of the Bureau of Community Organization for Adult Education. Bergevin did not disagree with the service orientation, but he wanted to do graduate education and research. Within the first year, he had added to the mission of this bureau graduate education and research. But Bergevin saw these three activities as a unity. Service to Indiana institutions and communities were used for developmental research to test adult education programming principles, and the results of this research were incorporated into the graduate courses. Such was the pattern for Bergevin's 25 year tenure at Indiana University.

Bergevin's institutional approach to adult education gradually evolved, partly from this frustration of trying to get community institutions to cooperate with one another in providing and coordinating adult education programs. He began to see that the best way to get adults involved in adult education was through their involvement in various social institutions. With his staff, which by 1953 numbered five, he began to initiate programs in institutions found in most communities: churches, libraries, hospitals and work places. A staff member visited the administrative head of an institution and secured permission to begin an adult education program. The first step was to train members of the staff in group discussion skills and program planning skills. This trained group became a staff development committee that conducted needs assessments and developed and conducted programs for other staff members. Later other staff members were recruited to form a training group; once they were trained, they became a programming team.

The most significant developmental research project was initiated in 1952 in churches with support from the Lilly Foundation. Bergevin and McKinley began to study adult religious education. In selected Indiana churches, they began to conduct training institutes to train church members in group discussion and program planning skills. In 1958, they published the results of this research in Design for Adult Education in the Church. From the church study came a training design called the Indiana Plan; the same design was used in other settings and by 1960 the term Participation Training was also used to describe the training design.

The training design helped adults learn how to learn. In the design, 10-15 adults worked together to become a learning team. Under the direction of a trainer, the group identified needs and interests common to the group, formulated topics, set goals, and worked out a discussion outline. They then discussed the topic, led by a member of the group and observed by a group member. After the discussion, the learning team critiqued their discussion; they then repeated this process. Training in teamwork discussion skills constituted the first 2½ days of the training design. The group then became a program planning team and planned a program for another group in the Institute. Both groups presented their programs to the other group and then planned another program, but this time without the presence of the trainer. In the training design certain procedural norms were reenforced: freedom of expression, open communication, voluntary participation, shared leadership, and evaluation.

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THE CLEARING: GROWTH AND RENEWAL IN ADULT EDUCATION

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The annals of educational history are filled with examples of interesting, independent schools, programs, and learning communities that were established under the tutelege of a dynamic, farsighted leader. Many such programs enjoyed a short-lived existence because their fate was tied closely to the visions, vigor, and lifespan of their leader. The subject of this study, however, is a school, The Clearing, that has survived and thrived after its charismatic founder's death.

The Clearing is a residential adult education school located in Ellison Bay, Wisconsin, and is approaching its 50th anniversary as an independent school of nature, the humanities, and the arts. It was established in 1935 by Jens Jensen, (1860-1951),a renowned Danish-born landscape architect who patterned its non-credit curriculum after the Danish folk schools of his youth. After his death in 1951, his followers kept The Clearing alive by making some astute management decisions.

One could not explain the success of this school simply by ascribing its growth to a fortunate and timely combination of historic circumstances. By first drawing upon aspects of various leadership theories that focus on the personal force and effectiveness of a "Great Man," I hope to provide a richer explanation of why The Clearing was initially successful under Jensen, and why his inspired followers worked so tirelessly for its continued existence. Then, by applying a systems model of organizational growth and renewal, I will explain how The Clearing's leaders were able to mold the circumstances to their advantage, actively managing and creating the conditions that allowed the school to be the educational survivor that it is today.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK:

Leadership Theories: The Great Man/Personality Traits/Situational Theories: One of the earliest theories designed to explain the emergence of natural leaders was "The Great Man" theory advanced by Thomas Carlyle (1888), who wrote of the "Great Man" as a leader naturally endowed with unique qualities that captured the imagination, admiration, and devotion of the masses. By this century, hundreds of leadership theories had emerged, but Stogdill's (1974) extensive review of leadership research from 1904-1974 still found that the following personality traits were commonly associated with leadership:

1. Capacity (intelligence, originality in problem-solving, judgement);
2. Achievement (scholarship, knowledge, ability to influence others);
3. Responsibility (dependability, vigor and persistence, self-confidence, sense of personal identity, and willingness to accept consequences.);
4. Participation (sociability, cooperation, adaptability, humor);
5. Status (socioeconomic position, popularity, admiration);
6. Situation (needs and interests of followers; objectives of action).

Stogdill concluded that a person does not become a leader merely by possessing some combination of traits (although personality is a definite factor in leadership), but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the situation and to the characteristics, goals, and activities of the group. Gerth and Mills (1952) contended that it is the interactive effect of the individual and the situational factors that explain the phenomenom of leadership. Leadership is a "power relation" between the leader and the led, in which the leader gives more influence than he receives. They suggest that the study of leadership must consider (1) the traits and motives of the leader as man; (2) the images that selected publics hold of him and their motives for following him; (3) the features of the role he plays as a leader, and how he reacts to each of them; and (4) the institutional context in which he and his roles as well as his followers may be involved. These points will be considered when we analyze Jensen's personal characteristics and his ability to inspire others to work for the continued survival of The Clearing.

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Theory of Organizational Growth and Renewal: Lippitt (1969) defines the concept of organizational renewal as the "process of initiating, creating, and confronting needed changes so as to make it possible for organizations to become or remain viable, to adapt to new conditions, to solve problems, to learn from experiences, and to move toward greater organizational maturity" (p. 1). The renewal process is a circular one concerned with how people confront situations and search for solutions, and then how they cope with the circumstances of implementing these solutions. Organizations have stages of potential growth in their life cycles, and are confronted with crises and situations that demand appropriate management responses if the organization is to achieve its next stage of growth. Managers must know how to assess the present conditions realistically, to identify the key concerns, and to formulate the correct renewal efforts—a process Lippitt calls "existential leadership." (See Exhibit I: Chart of Organizational Growth and Renewal Process.) This model provides a sensible overlay for following and understanding the natural pattern of an organization's development. Apparently Jensen, the naturalist, and his followers, intuitively understood this organic pattern decades before the Lippitt schema was conceived.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION:

Jensen as a Great Man: In his long, successful, and prolific career as a Midwestern landscape designer, Jensen was a famous and respected civic leader in Chicago at the turn of this century. The city was then the center of the nation's cultural, artistic, and social reform movements—Carl Sandburg, Vachel Lindsay, and Lorado Taft were at the height of their creative careers; the architectural innovations of Louis Sullivan, the Prairie School, and Frank Lloyd Wright were revolutionizing their field; the social and political reform activity of Jane Addams, Clarence Darrow, John Altgeld, Upton Sinclair, and others gained international recognition; and the educational developments of William R. Harper and the University of Chicago's extension programs were changing the world of pedagogical thought. Jensen, who was a friend and colleague of many of these people, used his talents and energies to design the major park system for the west side of Chicago, to establish the forest preserve system of Illinois and many of the state parks in Wisconsin, to work for the preservation of the Indiana Sand Dunes, to incorporate parks and playgrounds into the Chicago school system, to work with Sullivan and Wright, and to landscape the grounds of many rich and prominent midwestern citizens.

Additionally, he wrote essays on nature, conservation and education that appeared regularly in the Wisconsin State Journal, authored two books of his philosophy of life and nature, The Clearing and Siftings, and was awarded an honorary doctorate in 1937 from the University of Wisconsin, which also established the Jens Jensen Professorial seat in the School of Agriculture.

Jensen possessed many of the leadership traits that Stogdill identified, and was extremely effective in convincing others of the merits of his philosophy. While many of his advocates were already sympathetic toward his views, his school became to them a tangible symbol of Jensen's words, teaching, and way of life.

The Clearing's Stages of Organizational Growth and Renewal

The following summary of The Clearing's historical development is organized into Lippitt's first five stages of Oganizational Growth and Renewal, and should be read in conjunction with the accompanying chart (Exhibit I).

I. Birth (1935-1937): When Jensen established The Clearing in 1935, he envisioned it as a site for independent thinking and personal growth, all in harmony with nature. A substantial part of his educational philosophy was derived from the writings of Bjornstjerne Bjornson, N. F. S. Grundtvig, John Dewey, Jean Rousseau, and Lev Tolstoy. He selected Ellison Bay, in Door County, Wisconsin, primarily because of its natural beauty, but also because of its accessibility to three urban areas—Chicago, Milwaukee, and Minneapolis, from which he could draw potential students. The school year ran from October to June, and lessons were offered in Drafting, Botany, Woodcarving, Weaving, Writing, Poetry, Landscape Architecture, Painting, and Drawing. The Clearing's program was based on the folk school customs of a residential setting, communal living, physical labor (gardening, landscaping the campus, constructing the classrooms), and a great deal of informal discussion of literature, politics, and storytelling. Financial support came mainly from Jensen's personal funds, contributions from some of his wealthy clients, and donated services from friends, teachers, neighbors, his formal legal firm, and other supporters.

II. Survival: (1937-1953): Once the school was established, Jensen delegated most of the daily operational details to his assistant, Mertha Fulkerson, while he spent his time teaching, recruiting students, securing funding, and publicizing the school's programs. Though never financially secure, the years under Jensen's leadership were deemed successful by him because his goals were modest. Between 1935 and 1951, several hundred young adult students had come to spend several months to a year to study with Jensen, to absorb his knowledge of botany, horticulture, and landscape design, and to understand his philosophy of living, which encompassed a spiritual appreciation of nature, the arts, and the spoken word.

In 1950, Jensen formed an advisory council whose job it would be to assure The Clearing's survival after his death. He was intuitively astute in his choices of dedicated board members, for while they all shared a fervent committment to his ideals and to the school, each was invaluable in his or her own way during the difficult transition years after Jensen's death in 1951. While Mertha Fulkerson kept the school operating, together they launched a major fund drive; began an ambitious publicity campaign; enlisted the support of faculty from the University of Chicago, the University of Wisconsin, and the Illinois Institute of Technology to develop a curriculum compatible with Jensen's philosophy; and in 1953, gained the financial backing and affiliation of the Wisconsin Farm Bureau Federation.

III. Stability: (1953-1965): Affiliating with The Wisconsin Farm Bureau Federation, the only private, statewide agricultural organization of its type in the nation to support an independent liberal arts school for adults, marked the beginning of the stability stage for The Clearing. The Board of Directors of the Farm Bureau felt an affinity with the love of the soil and nature that Jensen espoused, thought that the campus would be an ideal site for their rural youth programs, and supported the populist belief that clear and independent thinking fostered better citizens and a stronger democracy. Perhaps such a decision could only have come from a midwestern agricultural state with a strong tradition of progressive politics and a history of agricultural alliance with education.

Because students would no longer be able to learn directly from Jensen, the future success of the school would have to come from the quality of the courses and instruction. The structure of the curriculum was changed to one or two-week long liberal arts courses taught during the summer. Not only did this change minimize the winter utility expenses, but it also made short-term, humanities-based, non-credit courses available to a new audience of students--the working adults who could attend a class during their vacations, and retired adults who were attracted to the more intellectual and less physically strenuous curriculum. A rich variety of courses were offered in subjects ranging from poetry, history, political science, philosophy, nature, literature, languages, writing, music, conservation, arts, and folk crafts.

The Jensen educational philosophy, the scenic setting, and the opportunity to teach intense and stimulating courses also enabled The Clearing to recruit outstanding faculty, like author-naturalist Rutherford Platt, poet Galway Kinnel (later to win the Pulitzer Prize), Henry Algren (later to be named Secretary of the U.S. Department of Agriculture), and many other respected teachers from various regional universities. The dormitory accommodations limited the weekly class size to 25 or 30, and there were usually waiting lists for the courses.

The Farm Bureau assumed management and financial responsibility for the school, and provided operational funds and staff, fringe benefits, public relations contacts, and funds for capital improvements.

IV. Pride and Reputation: (1965-1982): The consistent financial support of the Farm Bureau enabled The Clearing's resident managers, Fulkerson (1953-1969), Claire and Dorothy Johnson (1970-1976), and Donald and Louise Buchholz (1977-present) to guide the school into the fourth stage of development. Under Fulkerson, a support group of former students, The Friends of the Clearing, was formed to provide assistance with publicity and student recruitment efforts, and that group has continued to play an active role with the school. The caliber of course offerings and instructors remained high, and interest in the courses grew as word of the outstanding and unique programs in a natural setting spread. In the last two decades, Door County, Wisconsin, has become a popular summer vacationland, and the school has benefited from this new influx of adults seeking to combine learning with recreation.

The Johnsons and Buchholz's made numerous public presentations to further publicize the school; joined the Folk School Association of America to establish a network with other adult residential programs; worked with the Farm Bureau in keeping the buildings (now on the National Register of Historic Places) and grounds in order; retained the support of the Friends group; remained responsive to new class ideas and promotion techniques; instituted better evaluation methods to assess student satisfaction; and instituted a non-residential Winter program for the people of the Door County community.

V. Uniqueness and Adaptability: (1982-present): In 1982, The Clearing became an entity separate from, but not independent of, the Farm Bureau. While Farm Bureau officials still serve as the Board of Directors, providing the continued reassurance of financial backing, this arrangement was undertaken to foster greater long-term fiscal and administrative self-reliance. This is the first major shift in thirty years of Farm Bureau support, and its potential ramifications may be serious. The Wisconsin Farm Bureau Federation is now a multimillion dollar agribusiness, reflecting the radical changes that have taken place in the American agriculture industry. Issues of concern to the new generation of Farm Bureau leadership include better accountability, cost-effective programs, marketing strategies, and a proper return on their investment. The Clearing's leadership will have to assess whether this new relationship with the Farm Bureau threatens to halt or reverse the school's growth, or whether it offers new opportunities to move the school successfully to the fifth phase of uniqueness and adaptability.

Using Lippitt's model to predict appropriate management decisions and actions for Phase 5, one would encourage the school's leadership to focus on their areas of uniqueness and strength; to seek diversified funding support, to assess the competition and find new ways to market The Clearing's programs and setting; to renovate its aging facilities; to use the Friends to fuller capacity; to explore the possibilities of developing a national reputation for expertise in an appropriate specialized field (e.g., nature studies); and to research how other adult education programs are adapting to changing economic and social conditions. I hope that this new approach may help The Clearing's leaders better understand and analyze their dynamic history, realistically assess their current situation, predict the next growth stage, and make appropriate and successful management decisions for The Clearing's future.

In addition to documenting the development of this unique school within the context of the times, this study will also address the following questions: What has been the impact of The Clearing's programs to the field of adult education? Is Jensen's folk-based educational philosophy one that is relevant to these times? Was the school merely the vain pursuit of an aging man, or did the programs provide meaningful experiences for the students it purported to serve? Are there broader lessons that can be gained from this study which may be of use to other independent residential adult educational programs? The fact that in the fifty years of The Clearing's existence, at least 10,000 people have attended classes, and another 30,000 know of and support Jensen's program and philosophy lends credence to the validity of Jensen's beliefs, and makes The Clearing an institution worthy of a place in the annals of adult educational history.

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EXHIBIT I: Organizational Growth and Renewal Process*

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGE	RESULT	LEADERSHIP KNOWLEDGE/SKILLS	MANAGEMENT DECISIONS AND ACTION
1. Birth	Create a new organization; Begin operation.	Possess clear, short-range objectives and belief in ability, product & market; Transmit knowledge into action & order; Willing to take risks.	Make firm decisions and move with speed & flexibility; Assess marketability of product; Set fiscal procedures and secure funding; Possess political and technical knowledge; Leadership and strategic planning skills; Make timely entrance into the marketplace.
2. Survival	Survive as viable system; Accept reality; Learn from experience.	Communicate goals to others; have faith in future; decide what can be sacrificed; Adjust to conditions.	Focus operations; Set up effective accounting & recording procedures; Hire top quality personnel; Establish training procedures; Implement basic policies; Delegate work; Meet the competition.
3. Stability	Develop strength and efficiency; Retain flexibility to change.	Organizational ability; Turn long range plans into objectives for others; Predict relevant factors; Trust other members.	More aggressive actions in the marketplace; Make proper responses to the competition; Public relations strategy; Increase teamwork; Begin research and development efforts for new technology; Planning & objectives setting.
4. Reputation & Pride	Reinforce efforts to improve quality of product & service.	Review and evaluate skills; Team understands common goals; Involvement in decision-making; Team is committed and proud.	Concentrate on image; Assure sound financial foundation; Recruit quality personnel; Review & update policies & commong philosophy; Increase quality of services; Leadership training; Contribute to community.
5. Uniqueness and Adaptability	Benefit from specialty and uniqueness.	Self-confidence; Ability to determine how & whether to change; Increase delegation; Integration of staff into objectives.	Internal audit of strengths & weaknesses; Set policies to balance operations; Select and promote special services; Increase delegation; Better communications flow; Increase advertising and image-building.
6. Contribution	Gain public respect & admiration of community and society.	Understanding of major objectives in relationship to environment; Have sense of responsibility and ability to apply resources to the problems of society.	Greater committment to society; Self-actualization; Determine whether & how to share; More individual responsibility of workforce; National & community service offered; Long-range directions in relation to the total environment; Use ideas of whole team.

*Adapted from Lippitt, G. (1969). *Organizational Renewal: Achieving Viability in a Changing World*. NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

LOCUS OF CONTROL AND COURSE COMPLETION OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION LITERACY PROGRAM PARTICIPANTS

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ABSTRACT

The relationship between locus of control and course completion in an adult basic education program was investigated. Instruction was individualized; each learner was tutored by an adult volunteer. Learners were referred by social service agencies or were encouraged to participate by friends and family or through radio and television advertisements. Early in their program, 62 adult learners responded to an 11-item modification of the Rotter I-E Scale. As hypothesized, adult learners who completed the literacy program were significantly more internally controlled than those learners who did not complete the program. In addition, the dropout group included a much higher proportion of learners referred by social service agencies.

INTRODUCTION

In adult basic education (ABE), many learners drop out of programs designed to improve their reading and writing skills. Kent (1973) described a dropout rate of approximately 60% during a six-month period. Without successful completion in a literacy program, opportunities for further skills development are limited. Since completion of programs would seem to depend on personal commitment, it is likely that locus of control is related to course completion. Rotter (1966) states that people vary in the degree to which they recognize a contingent relationship between their own behaviors (actions) and the resulting reinforcements (outcomes). Certain people (externals) generally believe that reinforcements are controlled by forces external to themselves such as fate, chance, luck, powerful others. Others (internals) tend to believe that their own behaviors are the primary factors in receipt of reinforcements; that is, control rests within the power of the individual. Rotter (1966) further states that belief in locus of control is attributable to the history of reinfocement patterns experienced by an individual.

Newsom and Foxworth (1980) hypothesized that a greater percentage of internal than external subjects would complete a goal. They investigated this relationship among students in ABE classes. Subjects were enrolled in a federally sponsored retraining program and received training allowances to attend school. In contrast to the hypothesis, the proportion of internals and externals completing the course did not differ significantly. Since receipt of training allowances was conditional on attendance at school, one might speculate

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seng (1970) hypothesized that locus of control would correlate with job proficiency, employability and training satisfaction of clients in a vocational centre. He found that in comparison to externals, internals showed significantly higher instructor ratings on job proficiency and personal quality, higher self-ratings on training satisfaction and higher need for achievement. In examining the relationship of locus of control and work-relevant variables, Valecha (1972) found that white internals were in higher level occupations, made better progress on the job, had more stable work histories, worked more hours per week and had higher incomes than white internals. No such relationships were found for black subjects.

The above studies have provided some evidence of the relationship between locus of control and variables associated with job success. Support was not shown for a relationship between locus of control and course completion. It is possible that in the Newsom and Foxworth study, the completion rate was more a function of outside influences such as monetary allowances for attending school. It seems reasonable to expect a relationship between locus of control and course completion. Those individuals who are inclined to associate the receipt of reinforcements as being dependent on their own actions and behaviors should more readily complete a course. Therefore, it was hypothesized that adult learners who complete a literacy program are more internally controlled than those adult learners who do not complete it.

METHOD

Subjects

A total of 62 adults (29 female and 33 male) enrolled in an ABE literacy program in Eastern Ontario comprised the research subjects. This was the total group admitted between September and January. All subjects volunteered to take the literacy training; they were not eligible for a federal training allowance and could not afford the community college tuition fee. Learners were referred to a one-to-one tutorial program through a well established netowrk of social service agencies, word of mouth, and radio and television advertisements. Tutors were also volunteers. Subjects were assigned to reading and writing skill levels: beginner (decoding words), intermediate (reading to learn) and mature (refinement of skills). Ages ranged from 18 to 56. Language of instruction was English. Learners met with their tutors for a weekly three-hour session. In many instances learning sessions took place twice a week.

Measuring Instruments

A modification of Valecha's abbreviated 11-item Rotter I-E Scale was used to measure locus of control. These items were chosen based on their adult-oriented and work-related content. In contrast to Valecha's scale, the original forced choice format of Rotter's I-E Scale was used. The range of scores was from 10 to 20, with the larger scores indicating an external orientation. One filler item was included in the scale. A biographical profile was developed for each subject which included type of referral, reading level, age and progress through the course.

Procedure

The modified scale was administered to an adult learner by his or her tutor during the first two weeks of the literacy program. Data from six subjects were not obtained. Since many subjects could not read, the scale was presented orally to the learner by his or her tutor. The adult learner then indicated which of the alternatives best described his or her feelings. The tutors were trained to administer the modified I-E Scale. Programs for adult learners began on three separate occasions: October, December and January. Because of time constraints for data collection, completion of the program was defined as active participation in the program for a period of three months. It was argued that students who completed three months had shown themselves to be personally committed.

RESULTS

Data were analyzed with two independent variables: completion (yes, no) and reading level (beginner, intermediate and mature). The means and standard deviations for locus of control scores are presented in Table 1. As can be seen, those who completed were more internal than those who did not complete. While there was a tendency for beginner readers to be more external than intermediate and mature readers, these differences were not large. Data were analyzed using a two-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) with locus of control scores as the dependent variable.

As hypothesized, adult learners who completed the literacy program were significantly more internal than those who did not complete the program, $F\ (1,50) = 17.03$. It had been expected that those learners who were better readers would be more internally controlled. Although in the hypothesized direction, these differences were not significant, $F\ (2,50) = 0.29$. No interaction was found between the two independent variables, $F\ (2,50) = 0.78$.

TABLE 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Locus of Control by Reading Level and Completion Rate

	Completion					
	Yes			No		
Reading Level	N	M	S.D.	N	M	S.D.
Beginner	14	3.21	1.12	4	6.00	.82
Intermediate	21	3.05	1.56	9	5.11	1.45
Mature	5	3.20	1.92	3	4.33	1.53
Total	40	3.16		16	5.15	

DISCUSSION

Adult learners who completed the program tended to be more internal in their belief of control of reinforcements. Internally controlled individuals are described as likely to believe in their own potential to change their world. Generally speaking, in this study, learners who completed the program were able to overcome problems of transportation, weather, conflicting work schedules and the frustrations of the academic learning. Externally controlled individuals generally believe their destinies and outcomes are controlled by forces extrinsic to themselves, such as fate, chance, luck or powerful others. Therefore it is not surprising that those individuals who did not complete tended to be more external.

The 40 learners who completed the program were referred by the following methods: social service agency (15), advertisement (13) and family member or friend (12). Of the 16 learners who did not complete the program, 12 were referred by a social service agency and 4 learned of the program through advertisements. This greater proportion of unsuccessful agency referrals is certainly consistent with what is known of locus of control. The fact that those who do complete tend to be more internal and participate because of their own decision is consistent with the theory.

If it can be further demonstrated that dropouts in ABE programs, such as basic training for skill development and college preparation, have an external orientation, then counselling techniques specific to the adult learner can be designed to increase their feelings of self-efficacy. Shifting adult learners to more internal orientations in a group setting through locus of control change techniques could be conducted as part of the ABE (course content) program. During the program orientation, adult learners with external orientations could be identified and streamed into small groups to be instructed in skills that would help in changing external behaviors and attitudes towards internality.

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SUCCESSFUL SELF-DIRECTED LEARNERS'LEARNING STYLES

Jean-Pierre Theil[1]

INTRODUCTION

The trend of studies that Tough has investigated in 1971 and reviewed in 1978 has confirmed the importance of adult learning that takes place in natural everyday settings. Those researches described the nature of self-directed learning (SDL), the demographic characteristics of the learners involved and confirmed the importance of the phenomenon in many countries and for various populations. Since then, Mocker and Spear (1982) have pointed out the emergence of new trends for the 80's with regard to understanding the SDL process. The learners' personality traits are being studied: learning-prone adults (Amstrong; 1971), self-concept (Sabbaghian; 1979), extroversion/introversion (Fox; 1983).

Abilities of successful autonomous learners are also being investigated: behavioural and cognitive abilities (Guglielmino; 1977), creativity (Torrance; 1978), successful long-term learning (Brookfield; 1981). In French speaking countries new approaches are also emerging. Life situations by which an adult acquires experience by means of autonomous learning are being analyzed (Pineau; 1978). The learners' needs and the corresponding competencies required from facilitators have been described in order to study the assistance required in the SDL process (Tremblay; 1979). The SDL process of autodidactic individuals and groups are being analyzed with regard to andragogical principles (Danis and Tremblay; 1983). But, as Cross (1981) pointed out, whatever the approach, the ultimate objective remains the understanding of the SDL process and how adults learn in natural settings.

PURPOSE

The identification of the learning styles of successful self-directed learners could help to understand better how adult learn in a natural setting. The questions of this research can be stated as follows: 1. What are the learning styles of successful self-directed learners? 2. Do demographic variables such as sex, age, and educational level influence the learning styles? 3. Does the subject matter influence the learning styles?

FRAMEWORK

KOLB'S EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING MODEL

Kirby (1979) pointed out that a great number of learning style typologies already exist Kolb's experiential learning model

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(1975) and the Adaptive Style Inventory (1980) were found relevant to the study of self-directed learners. The learner's experience and the learner/learning environnement interaction constitute the common features of both Kolb's model and the SDL process.

A learning style, according to Kolb, is the unique and characteristic combination of learning modes that a person has developed as a result of his/her experience. He identifies four basic modes: concrete experience (CE), abstract conceptualization (AC), active experimentation (AE) and reflective observation (RO). The score a subject has on a continuum representing his/her reality organization (from concrete [CE] to abstract [AC]) and on a continuum of reality transformation (from action [AE] to reflexion [RO]) determines the learning style. Thus, there are four learning styles: accommodator, diverger, converger and assimilator.

Accommodator (CE/AE): One who learns best by becoming involved in experience and by risking intuitive decisions.

Diverger (CE/RO): One who is good at observing and imagining alternative ways and strategies to learn.

Converger (AC/AE): One whose learning approach stresses the application of ideas in practical situations.

Assimilator (AC/RO): One who emphasizes inductive reasoning and theory building.

The ideal style should be adaptable and flexible according to different stiuations. It may be assumed that a learner will try to adapt to different situations by using the appropriate learning style.

BROOKFIELD'S CRITERIA OF SUCCESSFUL SDL

The criteria Brookfield suggested to determine a sub-set of self-directed learners who are successful seemed useful because these criteria exclude any learning processes that could have been acquired in some formal ways. In the present study, the successful self-directed learners must have the following characteristics:

1. They have been involved in the same learning project for at least four (4) years.
2. If a formal learning activity had occured, it could not have exceeded three month duration.
3. They had not had more than 16 years of schooling.
4. They had an identified expertise that could be measured by peer acclaim.
5. This expertise was not an application of a skill learned on the job.

TREMBLAY'S CATEGORIES OF SUBJECT MATTERS

Having analyzed different classifications of subject matters, Tremblay proposed five categories which could be also associated

TABLE I: LEARNING STYLES OF SUBJECTS

	Learning styles				
	Accom-modator	Assim-ilator	Conver-ger	Diver-ger	N
Total Sample	16, 53,3%	8, 26,7%	4, 13,3%	2, 6,7%	30

TABLE II: LEARNING STYLES BY SEX, AGE, YEARS AT SCHOOL AND SUBJECT MATTERS

	Accom-modator	Assim-ilator	Conver-ger	Diver-ger	N
Female	8, 72,7%	1, 9,1%	1, 9,1%	1, 9,1%	11
Male	8, 42,1%	7, 36,8%	3, 15,8%	1, 5,3%	19
Younger (18 - 35)	7, 63,3%	3, 27,3%	-	1, 9,1%	11
Older (36 -)	9, 47,4%	5, 26,3%	4, 21%	1, 5,3%	19
(14-16yrs)	7, 87,5%	1, 12,5%	-	-	8
(-13 yrs)	9, 40,9%	7, 31,8%	4, 18,2%	2, 9,1%	22
Personal development	9, 56,3%	4, 25%	1, 6,2%	2, 12,5%	16
Interest curiosity	6, 50%	4, 33,3%	2, 16,7%	-	12
Family Housing	1, 100%	-	-	-	1
Community concern	-	-	1, 100%	-	1

The accommodator style was found to be prevailing for 53,3% of the subjects, the assimilator style for 26,7%, and the converger style for 13,3%. The diverger style was the least outstanding since prevailing with only 6,7% of the subjects.

The demographic variables did not seem to modify the general distribution of the learning style types. However the range appears less clearly cut among the people who were 36 years old and more or had 13 years and less of schooling. Women seemed to be highly accommodator oriented (72,7%) and equally the subjects with 14 to 16 years of schooling (87,5%).

Diverger and converger styles are not prevailing for subjects who were 35 years old or less or for subjects who had had between 14 and 16 years of schooling.

First, the finding suggest that the majority of successful self-directed learners studied have an accommodator learning style. As Kolb had noticed, the accommodators perform better when using concrete experience and active experimentation. Their greatest strength lies in doing things: in carrying out plans and experiments and in involving themselves in new experiences. They are labelled accommodators because they tend to excel in those situations where they must adapt to specific immediate circumstances. Problems tend to be solved in an intuitive, trial-and-error manner. These learners are relying heavily on other people for information rather than on their own analytic ability.

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with motivations to start learning projects: personal development (PD), family and housing concern (FH), community concern (CC), interest or curiosity (IC) and work and job concern. The pre-established criteria led to the exclusion of this work and job concern category.

METHODOLOGY

Thirty (30) persons from french speaking associations accepted to participate in the research. There were eleven (11) women and nineteen (19) men. They all filled in a french version of Kolb's Adaptive Style Inventory. The translation had been previously been validated by a jury composed of adult educators, graduated in english studies or translation, acquainted with Kolb's experiential learning model and familiar with the subjects' vernacular french.

The questionnaire was administered in a face-to-face setting in order to establish an appropriate climate, show real interest in the respondants' learning projects and allow for the opportunity to explain how to proceed in answering the questionnaire.

The results are analysed following those steps:

1. Assign a score to each dimension (concrete to abstract, active to reflexive).
2. Establish the learning mode (concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation).
3. Combine scores for each dimension in order to determine the subjects' characteristic learning style (accommodator, diverger, assimilator, converger).
4. Determine the prevailing learning style. In order to compare the subjects' scores to Kolb's norm group scores (1979 version), the Z scores were computed using the AC - CE and AE - RO distribution means and standard deviations.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Most of the thirty (30) subjects (73,4%) have had 13 years or less of schooling and 26,6%, between 14 and 16 years. Eleven (11) were 35 years old or less and nineteen (19) were 36 years old or more. 54,4% of the subjects had subject matters related to personal development, 40% related to interest of curiosity, 3,3%, to family and housing concern and 3,3% related to community concern.

The main findings are presented in the two following tables: the distribution of subjects according to learning styles (Table I) and the distribution according to sex, age, educational level and subject matters (Table II).

This result is not surprising since the pragmatic orientation of the self-directed learner is well established. The concrete orientation is not a surprise either, except for the fact that, according to Kolb's theory, a major concrete orientation entails a minor abstract orientation. Consequently, this means that the learners may have learned successfully without resorting much to their abstract conceptualization ability. Those results are congruent with the results found about highly self-directed learners (Brookfield, Guglielmino, Torrance, Fox). Highly SDL learners show risk-taking, tolerance to ambiguity, preferences for subjective information processing, dealing with simultaneous problems, intuitive problem-solving. The abilities which seem relevant to a self-directed process are rather different from the school-like skills which emphasize a logical, sequential and linear approach in information processing which would be rather associated with the assimilator style.

An unexpected finding was the fact that the observation abilities which could be thought to characterize self-directed learners (Penland; 1977) did not appear to characterize the subjects of the present study (only 6,7%).

Finally, the finding that 87,5% of the subjects who had 14 or 16 years of schooling and were consequently expected to rely on their academic abilities of abstraction and reflection had accommodator style, pulls for further research. It seems as though a given self-directed learning setting could lead the subjects to put aside their habitual way of learning and to use the accommodator's strategy to adapt to it.

CONCLUSION

The study results and their implications need to be further investigated and empirically verified. The limits of the research such as the limited number of subjects and their consequent non representativeness prevent a generalization of the results. Nevertheless, this study points out as Mocker and Spear did, the fact that it would be a basic error for researchers to try to equate the self-directed learning process with the process used traditionnaly in planning or organizing formal education.

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THE ADMISSIONS DECISION PROCESS OF STUDENTS ACCEPTED INTO GRADUATE STUDY IN ADULT EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

The decision to participate in any learning experience requires an investment of time, energy and material resources. That decision also produces expected and unexpected consequences. When a commitment is made to participate in a learning experience for the purpose of meeting one need or one set of needs, those resources are not available to deal with other needs or to invest in other learning experiences. Therefore, the task of deciding to participate in a particular learning experience presents learners with the problem of examining the consequences of that decision within their own frame of reference.

Consequences : The research question that is addressed by this study is what possible consequences do potential students consider when making a decision to participate in a program of graduate study. This study is not concerned with the frequency and distribution of a predetermined list of possible consequences, but rather with discovering the many different consequences that are taken into consideration during the whole process of deciding to participate. This study is concerned with a search for the consequences that were considered by accepted students between the time they first thought of earning the degree and the time when they actually enrolled.

In this study a consequence is defined as something that follows logically or naturally from an action or condition. A consequence may be an effect, end, result, outcome, product, gain, goal, desire, object, or purpose. A consequence that is considered is simply one that is reported.

Research in Progress : This paper is a description of a research study in progress. The following is a report on a preliminary analysis of part of the data.

METHODOLOGY

The qualitative approach is being used to examine how potential students think about participation and to explore the whole phenomenon of considering consequences during the admissions decision process.

Framework : The Chain-of Response (COR) Model developed by Cross (1981) is being used as the framework for reviewing the admissions decision process of those included in the study. This model pictures seven categories of variables which influence a person's decision to participate in a learning experience. Those variables are self-evaluation, attitudes, goals and expectations, life transitions, information, opportunities and barriers and participation. Second, the model pictures how consideration of each of these variables produces

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a chain of positive and negative responses which combine to form whatever decision is made about participation.

The construction of this model is based on the assumption that decisions are not linear progressions of isolated experiences, but rather are responses to the complex personal and social milieu that forms the world in which the decision maker lives. The theory supporting this model further assumes that human beings act because they believe that their actions will produce consequences such as specific effects, results and rewards.

Developing the Question : First, we used the COR Model as a framework for designing an interview schedule to encourage those interviewed to talk about how their decision to participate was influenced by considerations of each of the variables identified by the elements of the model. This interview guide was used in pre-test interviews with five potential students not included in the study.

Typed transcripts of these taped interviews were analyzed for clues describing the consequences considered. Next, the elements of the COR Model were used as labels to define possible categories of consequences. Then consequences were assigned to one or more of those categories in order to examine the possibility that a distinct set of consequences was considered by the interviewee's observations about each of the elements. We found that these assignments were useful in developing categories of related consequences, but were not useful in describing how a person moved through the process of making a decision.

When transcripts and clues were analyzed again, it was discovered that some clues could be associated with specific points in time and therefore, could be ordered sequentially. By ordering all clues from one interview in sequence and by category, we could then see how potential students moved back and forth in the process as they considered consequences related to first one and then another category and simultaneously moved forward through the process toward enrolling in the program.

Data Collection : During the fall of 1983 taped interviews were conducted with sixteen people selected from the list of the 33 applicants to the Adult and Community College Education Program at North Carolina State University who were admitted for the summer and fall of 1983 and who decided to enroll. Typed transcripts of these in-depth interviews, notes on the researchers' observations from exchanges with those included in the study, and applications for admission are being used to collect data about potential students' decisions to participate.

Data Analysis : In order to protect the identity of those included in the study the names used to identify interviewees have been changed. Names were randomly selected from a list and assigned without regard to gender.

The analysis of the data was begun by identifying each sentence and phrase in the transcript which appeared to be an obvious statement about one or more consequences that the interviewee stated in terms of needs, desires, and goals. After reviewing four of the transcripts, we found that some interviewees were expressing needs, goals and desires by describing observations of life experiences which they did not want to continue or repeat, so we reread the first four transcripts in search of this second type of clue.

We continued the analysis by reading six additional transcripts for the two types of clues describing needs, desires, and goals. We also made notes of ideas generated from the data about other words and phrases which might function as indicators of consequences. The following list of possible indicators was developed and used to identify other consequences these potential students considered while deciding to participate in a program of graduate study:

-Reports of wants, needs, desires, satisfiers, goals, purposes, missions.
-Reports of anticipated professional and personal life changes resulting from participation.
-Reports of events and situations which either promoted or delayed the decision to participate.
-Reports describing the interviewee's self-confidence in his or her ability to participate.
-Reports describing observations about the quality of the program being considered.

Next we reviewed all of the consequences identified and discovered that each interviewee seemed to approach participation with a different set of interests and concerns. Upon closer examination of clues, it became evident that a number of consequences were related to each other in a way that suggested the presence of a central theme in each person's admissions decision process. This theme seemed to function as a description of the interviewee's primary purpose.

In the next step of analysis, we looked for clues that would enable us to identify and describe the central theme in each transcript. We began with the following assumptions: that a central theme does exist in each transcript, that the collection of clues that forms the theme describes the potential student's primary goal, and that consequences related to the primary goal can be identified by using the following criteria:

1. Referred to without probing.
2. Referred to repeatedly.
3. Referred to as being valued by self.
4. Referred to as being valued by others.
5. Referred to as a desire, goal or purpose.
6. Referred to as shaping self-image.

By using this criteria we found that it was possible to identify a central theme in every transcript, but we also discovered that the central theme did not always describe a goal. What the central theme did describe, in every case, was the potential student's primary reason for deciding to participate, and in some cases that reason was a goal. This observation led us to revise our previous assumption about all central themes being goals and led us to reexamine the list of consequences in search of reasons other than goals that were considered while deciding to participate. The same criteria were used to reexamine transcripts and clues for primary reasons.

FINDINGS

Goals and Reasons : A reason is an explanation or justification of an act or an idea. A goal is different from a reason in that it suggests something specific that a person is trying to achieve. We used these definitions to determine which of the central themes or primary reasons were also goals. This determination was made by comparing the summary statement used to characterize the set of clues in each central theme to the definitions and also by comparing each clue in the set to the definitions. Findings from an analysis of four transcripts illustrate how these interviewees describe their goals and other reasons for participation.

Helen : Helen's goal is to earn a doctorate. She specifically states that getting a doctorate is more important to her than enrolling in a specific field of study. She refers to the degree as a life goal which she says is respected by her family and childhood friends more than money or position. She looks forward to the day when she will be called "doctor".

Larry : Larry's goal is to become a college president. He believes that in this position he will be free to do the kind of work he wants to do without a lot of restraints. In his work he wants to have an opportunity to demonstrate his leadership ability and his problem-solving skills. He describes being a college president as something he really wants and as something that will enable him to identify with and be accepted into a professional community.

Thomas : Thomas's primary reason for participation is to move out of a job which he sees as having no future. In discussing his future Thomas states that he wants to move into a new profession, but when the criteria were used to identify his goal, the primary concern that emerged was his concern to move away from a "dead end job" doing work that does not interest him in a work environment where he feels his work is not valued and where management provides services in a manner contrary to his own philosophical view of how organizations should provide service. It is this evidence which prompted us to characterize his goal as wanting to move out of a job.

Melissa : We have characterized Melissa's primary reason for participation as wanting to rehearse the student role. In the interview she talked about her interest in several different careers where she believes a study of adult education could be useful. However, she reports feeling that she does not have enough information to make a commitment to a specific plan of work or to the idea of completing the degree program in adult education. When the goal identification criteria were used to analyze the transcript of the interview with Melissa, what emerged were her repeated references to being "anxious to get started just doing something" and to viewing participation as an opportunity for "just getting my feet wet".

By referring to the definitions of reason and goal we saw that two of these primary reasons for participation are also goals. The specific thing that Helen wants to do is to earn a doctorate, and Larry wants to be a college president. Thomas' desire to move out of a job and Melissa's wish to rehearse her performance as a student are explanations for their decisions to participate, but those reasons are not descriptions of specific things that they are trying to achieve.

Frame of Reference : Once primary reasons were identified we examined the data for clues about how the other consequences were related to the primary reason. What we found was that the primary reason seemed to function as a frame of reference for considering other consequences.

For example, Melissa's frame of reference focused on being a student in some program of study as opposed to being a student who was committed to a specific program of study, so many of the consequences she considered dealt with questions of convenience. At seven different points during the interview Melissa referred to the fact that flexibility and convenience were important considerations.

Larry, who stated that his goal is to be a college president, used that goal to guide his investigation of the program of study in quite a different way. He approached his investigation of the program with questions concerning how the learning experiences could enable him to be an effective administrator. Larry made numerous references to the fact that he expected to gain specific knowledge and skills in such areas as budgeting, personnel management and evaluation.

Helen reported asking herself three questions when she learned that it was possible to earn a doctorate in adult and community college education. They were "Can I get in? Will I do it? What will it take?" Her initial considerations of consequences related to the personal and material demands of getting into and completing the program.

Thomas approached participation with another perspective. He reported devoting a lot of time to considering what career options might be open to him as a result of completing the program.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

During the admissions decision process, potential students seek information about how a program of study is related to their reasons for participation. Those who report wanting to achieve specific goals are primarily concerned with being able to learn specific skills and competencies. The goal-directed learners are also interested in information about additional experiences that could enable them to learn more about achieving their goals.

Those who are not goal-directed do have reasons or explanations for deciding to participate. Their reasons are stated in terms of what they perceive as possible gains from the experience, and those gains are seen as tenatively being connected to one of several possible career interests. Most of their questions are focused on what it is possible to learn and how it might be used.

In other words, those who are goal-directed seek information about learning specific things for a specific application. Those who are not goal-directed seek more general information about the various applications of what it is possible to learn.

Among the educational implications of having this knowledge are that providers who have these data will then be able to (1) respond more directly to the specific information needs of potential students, (2) develop and distribute information to correct inaccurate perceptions about the consequences of participating in the program, and (3) use these data to guide potential students in developing a plan of work that meets their perceived needs.

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ADULTS' LIFELONG ISSUES

Howard Williams
William Stockton

Much current investigation focuses on the issues, problems, or crises of adults at different ages across the life span (Levinson, 1978; Lowenthal, 1976; Gould, 1978). The point of view represented in these investigations suggests that each age has its own special issues. Yet the experience of many people is that there are also basic, recurring issues or themes in life. These issues or concerns wear somewhat different garb at different times, but they are nonetheless the same basic issues. The purpose of this study was to see whether such lifelong issues could be identified. Two approaches to the problem were taken; the first was an ad hoc conceptualization, and the second was a latent partition analysis.

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The investigation of lifelong issues began with a group of twelve graduate students and faculty who met weekly to develop a list of such issues. An issue was defined as "a lifelong concern having far-reaching implications for the physical, psychological, social, and cultural aspects of life." Group members read widely in the social sciences, theology, philosophy, and literature to garner items for the ever growing list. From reading, personal experience, and discussion, the group generated eighty life issues or problems. In an effort to reduce this ponderous list to a more manageable size, twenty-two issues were dropped because they appeared to be synonyms for other issues. At this point there was little consensus about how the issues might be further consolidated, distilled or factored.

The authors decided to do a latent partition analysis (LPA), a form of cluster analysis, developed by Wiley and Wolfe (1969). The LPA clusters related items in one, two or three dimensional space depending upon the eigenvalues obtained.

Prior to the use of the latent partition analysis, the consolidated list of lifelong issues was circulated for judgments about their completeness to a dozen people not in the original group. They contributed four new issues to make a total of sixty-two issues (Figure 1).

A preliminary examination of the issues by the authors suggested four central issues: 1) relatedness, 2) change, 3) authority, and 4) kmowledge. Each of these issues appeared to have a positive-negative and a social-personal dimension. The dimensions of "relatedness", the first of the central issues, were as follows:

Relatedness	autonomy	+	interdependence	+
	loneliness	-	dependence	-

In the case above, autonomy and interdependence both have positive valences, but an excess of either might move an individual into a negative valenced issue--loneliness or dependence. For example, an excess of autonomy might result in loneliness and too much interdependence might end in dependence.

At the same time, there is a personal-social dimension to this issue. Autonomy and loneliness may be seen as personal solutions while interdependence and dependence tend to be social solutions to the issue of relatedness. Further, it may be that at different times of life, individuals may be at different places along the continuum between autonomy-loneliness and interdependence-dependence in their efforts to deal with the issue of relatedness. A child, for example, is less autonomous than an adult, but adults may chose to be less autonomous as they enter a new work experience or attempt to learn something quite new to them. At some other period of life, the adult may chose to set out alone to start a new business (greater autonomy) or enter a marriage (more interdependence).

"Change", the second of the four issues, (Figure 2) has the same positive-negative and personal-social features as the first issue did. "Change" encompasses the (personal) possibility of growth with its accompanying threat to one's established identity in contrast with (social) stability and the possibility of atrophy.

Similarly, the third issue "authority" may derive from (personal) principles which are self-authorized or from (social) norms authorized by the community. Self-authorized judgments may, however, become excessively arbitrary and unrelated to one's own life or the lives of others while active, self-renewing norms may fall victim to sterile legalisms.

The final issue represents the ongoing resolution of "knowledge" from two primary sources: intuition, deriving from what we feel to be true, and reason, based on fact and logic. Intuition must be safeguarded against delusion and reason against a mechanistic rationalism.

SUBJECTS

The subjects for the latent partition analysis were members of the group which had prepared the original items and friends whom they asked to participate. The only constraint was that the friends be college graduates. The rationale for the selection process was that these friends would likely share the introspective propensities of the original group members and that college graduates would be familiar with all the terms used. The four primary issues discussed above were not shared with the participants in the study.

There were sixty-six subjects, forty-three females and twenty-three males. The mean age of the group was 34.2; the standard deviation was 6.2; and the range from twenty-two to forty-eight years.

Each subject received a deck of sixty-two IBM cards on each of which was printed a single issue such as "equality", "failure", "duty" or "jealousy". Subjects were instructed to preview the deck of cards quickly in order to become acquainted with the terms. Then they were asked to sort the cards into piles so that the terms within each group represented similar issues. The subjects were permitted to create as many groups as they deemed necessary. When the sorting was completed, subjects were asked to review each group of cards to make sure that the words within each group went well together. Finally, subjects were given blue-edged cards on which they were to write a short phrase describing the central theme of each group of cards.

The sixty-two issue cards sorted by the participants were processed and the common structure or clusters of the sorts were extracted by a latent partition analysis (LPA). The initial process of the LPA is to generate a cohesion matrix that determines the extent to which there is cohesion within each of the clusters or confusion between them.

RESULTS

The latent partition analysis generated three major sets of results. First, the LPA found eleven clusters of issues (Figure 1) which were:

1. Personal potency
2. Negative reactions to constraints
3. Social potency
4. Intimacy
5. Fulfillment
6. Experience of external threat
7. Cognition
8. Personal impotence
9. Social involvement
10. Self respect
11. Respect for others

Second, these eleven clusters can be best mapped in two dimensional space (Figure 3). One axis appeared to be a positive-negative dimension and the other was personal-social. Most highly related to the positive end of the first axis were such clusters as "self-respect" and "social involvement", while "personal impotence" was associated with the negative pole. On the second axis, "social potency" was weighted toward the social pole while "cognition" and "self-respect" were associated with the personal pole.

Three, the clusters were highly cohesive, that is, there was little overlap or confusion between them.

DISCUSSION

Three sets of findings were particularly interesting. First, there were major correspondences between the authors' original conceptualization and the empirical findings of the LPA. Second, there were some thought-provoking aspects of the placement of the eleven clusters as they reflected the sorting by academically oriented subjects.

The authors' original conceptualization involved positive and negative aspects to each issue as well as personal and social elements. The LPA two dimensional representation of issues also had positive-negative and personal-social elements. The meaning of these elements in the LPA solution may not be quite the same as in the original conceptualization, but the similarity is striking.

The second set of findings suggest some interesting things about the academically oriented subjects in the study. As one looks at Figure 3, its most striking feature is the absence of any cluster(s) in the social- negative quadrant. One would expect that such issues as "powerlessness", "isolation", and "loneliness" would have at least some of their origin in social institutions, norms, and expectations. Apparently the subjects in this study did not see these issues as social ones. The subjects appear to characterize these disagreeable or punishing aspects of their lives as being of their own doing, hence these issues are assigned to the personal-negative quadrant. It is as though the subjects wish to own their own positive qualities such as "personal potency", "cognition" and "self-respect" and must then take responsibility for negative attributes or situations. Since academia prizes prediction and control, it may not be surprising that a group of academics see themselves as being responsible for most of what happens in their lives.

Another interesting feature of the response pattern is the identification of "cognition" (intuition, reason, insight, and belief) as highly positive and personal. Considering the research-oriented atmosphere in which graduate students and faculty are steeped, one might have expected a more social flavor to "cognition".

Third, the fact that the clusters were so cohesive suggests that there was substantial agreement on the issues among the subjects of different ages.

FURTHER RESEARCH

This investigation focused on a homogeneous group in the hope that the items to which they responded would cluster. However, subjects with different attributes or backgrounds deserve study. Would groups representing other social strata respond in the same way? Would differences in the cognitive developmental status of subjects markedly alter the results? is age or life experience an important element in how people see the issues in their lives? Would people from different ethnic backgrounds respond differently?

Clearly, the present study is limited. Future efforts might be directed at eliciting problems or issues from different groups to see whether the results would be similar to the list developed by the graduate students and faculty in this study.

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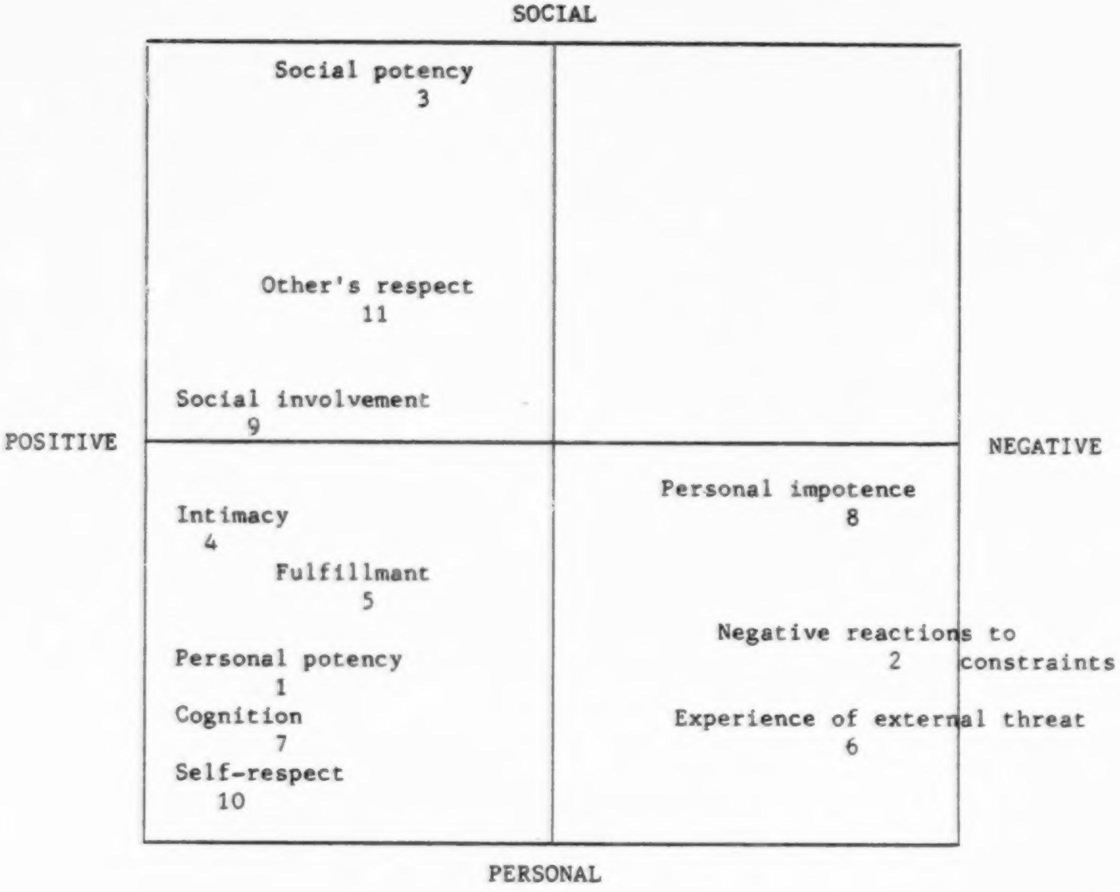
Figure 1: Eleven Clusters of Life Issues

Cluster Name	Life Issues	Loadings
1. Personal Potency	Initiative	116
	Adaptability	107
	Creativity	101
	Risk-taking	93
	Variety	91
	Competence	86
	Optimism	77
	Impulsiveness	72
	Independence	54
	Growth	43
2. Negative Reactions to Constraints	Anger	128
	Anxiety	102
	Guilt	96
	Frustration	84
	Jealousy	83
	Depression	52
3. Social Potency	Power	113
	Authority	105
	Prestige	82
	Competition	63
	Tradition	54
4. Intimacy	Love	106
	Intimacy	103
	Trust	93
	Responsiveness to Others	69
	Communication	58
	Forgiveness	49
5. Fulfillment	Serenity	117
	Secruity	81
	Solitude	78
	Joy	59
6. Experience of External Threat	Loss	96
	Illness	86
	Pain	83
7. Cognition	Intuition	105
	Reason	92
	Insight	76
	Belief	71
8. Impotence	Insolation	130
	Detachment	115
	Powerlessness	106
	Submissiveness	99
	Rigidity	96
	Boredom	89
	Failure	73
	Pessimism	72
	Loneliness	61
	Self-doubt	50
9. Social Involvement	Responsibility	125
	Cooperation	84
	Duty	73
	Stability	70
	Equality	63
	Self-discipline	62
	Integrity	57
	Commitment	54
	Tolerance	46
10. Self Respect	Self-worth	86
	Self-acceptance	84
11. Other's Respect	Approval by others	101
	Belongingness	89
	Usefulness	59

Figure 2: Four Hypothesized Clusters of Life Issues

1. Relatedness:	autonomy +	interdependence +
	loneliness -	dependence -
2. Change:	growth +	stability +
	diffusion -	atrophy -
3. Authority:	self-authorized +	community +
	egoistic -	moralistic -
4. Knowledge:	intuition +	reason +
	delusion -	rationalization -

Figure 3: Life Issue Clusters (LPA)


SOCIAL
Social potency
3
Other's respect
11
Social involvement
9
POSITIVE
NEGATIVE
Intimacy
4
Fulfillmant
5
Personal potency
1
Cognition
7
Self-respect
10
Personal impotence
8
Negative reactions to constraints
2
Experience of external threat
6
PERSONAL

Instructional Behaviors Valued By Adult Continuing Education Students Related To Student Personality Type

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Introduction and Purpose

The increasing competition among college and universities to attract adult students suggests that more attention be directed at understanding the preferences of the market. Having a knowledge of the specific instructor behaviors that adult students prefer, and the individual student differences that contribute to these preferences can assist adult educators be more responsive to this "new majority" in American higher education.

The purpose of this study was to specify the behavioral characteristics of instructors that are most highly valued by adult continuing business students and to investigate whether the behaviors most highly valued vary with students' personality type.

The relationship between personality and preferred instructional practices have been established in a number of studies. Many of these studies (Lawrence, 1982; Mc Caulley, 1976; Mc Caulley, Godleski, Yokomoto, Harrisberger and Sloan, 1983; Myers, 1962) have measured personality by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), a self report inventory based on Jung's typology of personality type. The MBTI incorporates four scales:

Extroversion-Introversion (EI): The EI index measure a person's preferred orientation to life. Extroverted types have primarily an outward orientation towards objects, people and action. Introverted types have a more inward orientation, tend to detach themselves from the world around them and focus more on the inner world of concepts and ideas.

Sensing-Intuition (SN): The SN index measures a person's preferred way of perception. Sensing types focus on perceptions received through one or more of the five senses; they notice the concrete details, immediate and practical aspects of a situation. Intuitive types perceive less directly than sensing types; they like to deal with the possibilities of inferred meanings and abstractions in a situation.

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Thinking-Feeling (TF): The TF index measures a person's preferred way of making decisions or judgment. Thinking types rely on logical structures, objectivity and impersonal judgments in dealing with a situation, organizing material or weighing the facts. Feeling types analyze subjectively and are skilled at understanding other people's feelings and base their judgments on personal values.

Judgment-Perception (JP): The JP index measures a person's preferred way of dealing with the outer world. Judging types are organized and systematic; they live in a planned, orderly way, aiming to regulate life and control it. Perceptive types are more curious and open-minded; they are flexible and spontaneous, aiming to understand life and adapt to it.

Determining whether business students with specific MBTI personality characteristics value certain instructor behaviors more highly than persons with the opposite personality preference was a major purpose of this study. The following general predictions concerning valued instructor behavior were made for each of the four MBTI personality dimensions:

Extroversion-Introversion (EI): Extroverts would be more likely than introverts to prefer instructors who are outgoing, display enthusiasm, encourage communication and provide feedback on student performance. No prediction was made for behavior favored by introverts.

Sensing-Intuitive (SN): Compared with intuitive types, sensors could be expected to prefer instructors who organize class material in a logical order, emphasize practical applications, and give objective tests. Intuitive types would likely more highly value instructor behaviors which encouraged individual initiative and independent thinking. They would be more likely than sensing types to prefer essay tests.

Thinking-Feeling (TF): Feeling types could be expected to have a stronger preference than thinking types for instructors who exhibit strong interpersonal skills and who provide a supportive learning environment through such characteristics as warmth, friendliness, understanding, and feedback.

Judgment-Perception (JP): The strong need for autonomy by perceptive types suggests they may place more value on instructor behaviors which encourage independent study while instructors adhering to clearly defined learning objectives and providing more structure would be more highly valued by judging types. The spontaneous nature of perceptive types may suggest a preference for instructors who displayed a sense of humor.

It was expected that the MBTI type of a student would not be associated with a preference for certain other behaviors. For example, the importance that students place on behaviors related to instructor competence, communication skills, and course workload was not expected to be influenced by their MBTI personality type.

Methodology

The MBTI and a Survey of Valued Teaching Behaviors (Survey) were the two instruments used. The specific behaviors included in the Survey were obtained from five sources. A preliminary survey involving both a structured survey (Pfister, 1978) and a non-structured survey was administered to 102 students. In the non-structured survey, students were asked to "picture in your mind a specific college teacher who contributed most to your learning and list as many qualities as you can which contributed to his or her ability to help you learn." Twenty of the 35 items in the final survey were obtained based on the most frequently mentioned behaviors in the preliminary survey. The remaining 15 items represented behaviors mentioned in at least two of the following: responses to the non-structured survey not previously selected, mentioned as one of 19 characteristics of "ideal, best, most valued" teacher identified by Feldman (1976), included as a characteristic from course evaluations for instructors in the College cited previously as "Outstanding Business Instructors," or included as a predicted behavioral preference of a specific MBTI personality type.

Both the Survey and the MBTI were administered to 248 adult continuing education business students attending credit courses at Rochester Institute of Technology. Responses to the Survey were summarized at the item level and factor analyzed (Varimax technique, Kaiser normalization, orthogonal rotation) with ten factors of valued instructor behaviors identified.

Results

Table I summarizes the ten factors of valued instructor behaviors found in this study. Behaviors related to an instructor's Competence (Factor I), Use of Up-To-Date Materials (Factor II), clear explication of Expectations and Objectives (Factor III), Organization and Course Development (Factor IV) and fairness and promptness of Evaluation (Factor V) were the most highly valued.

Students valued these behaviors more highly than those dealing with Personal Affect (Factor VI) or Responsiveness (Factor IX) of an instructor, the Emphasis (Factor VII) of instruction, or the use of a variety of Instructional Techniques (Factor VIII). While not as highly valued as other behaviors students had a preference for instructors who gave objective tests rather than essay tests (Test Preferences, Factor X).

Several multivariate techniques with appropriate post hoc univariate tests were used to determine the relationships between personality type, program major and sex of the sample and their preferred instructor behavioral characteristics. Using multivariate multiple regression analyses (SPSS-X, 1983) and univariate tests of significance, it was found that a statistically significant relationship ($\underline{p} < .05$) existed between the MBTI type of students and the behaviors they valued as measured by the ten factored constructs. No statistically significant relationships were found between the sex or program major of students across the ten factors.

Further tests (full factorial MANOVA and 2 way main effects MANOVA) revealed that only the EI and SN dimensions of the MBTI types of students were contributing to the mean factor preference score differences ($\underline{p} = .0249$). A post hoc examination of each factored construct identified four factors for which significant differences on the EI or SN scales existed. An examination of the factor preference scores for each of these four factors led to the conclusion that extroverts had a preference over introverts for instructor behaviors related to Personal Affect (Factor VI) and Expectations and Objectives

Table I

Valued Instructor Behaviors
Factor Preference Scores

Factor		Factor Preference Score
I	Competence (Well prepared for class; thorough knowledge of subject)	4.4347
II	Use of Up-To-Date Materials	4.3831
III	Expectations and Objectives (Explains expectations; clearly specifies course objectives)	4.3669
IV	Organization and Course Development (Effectively uses examples; presents material in logical sequence)	4.2177
V	Evaluation (Exams reflect material covered in class, helps motivate students to do best work; provides prompt feedback)	4.1665
VI	Personal Affect (Sense of humor; warmth and friendliness; displays enthusiasm; enjoys teaching; provides relaxed class atmosphere)	3.9798
VII	Emphasis (Relates subject to other fields; relates subject to students' career or work environment; emphasizes practical application rather than theory; relates material to students' experiences)	3.8812
VIII	Instructional Techniques (Uses a variety of instructional techniques)	3.7258
IX	Responsiveness (Responsive to individual needs; encourages students to provide feedback; out-of-class assistance; open to differing points of view; treats students as adults; effective use of supplementary materials)	3.7211
X	Test Preferences (Essay versus objective tests)	3.1062

(Factor III), and that sensing types preferred over intuitive types behaviors which expressed Responsiveness (Factor IX) and Organization and Course Development (Factor IV).

The instructor behavioral preferences of extroverts and sensing types found in this study are in the direction suggested by previous studies on the learning preferences of specific MBTI types, (Lawrence, 1982; Mc Caulley, 1981; Myers, 1962). For example, extroverts' preferences for instructional behaviors reflected by Personal Affect, (Factor VI), were consistent with their outgoing enthusiastic nature. Extroverts' preference for a clear explication of Expectations and Objectives (Factor III) appears in line with their communicative tendencies. Similarly, sensing types' need for structure supports their preference for behaviors reflecting orderly and logical Organization and Course Development (Factor IV); and in contrast to more autonomous intuitive types, sensing types' preference for Responsiveness (Factor IX) is understandable.

Based on previous research concerning the learning preferences of specific MBTI personality types, certain instructor behavior preferences by MBTI types were expected. The actual preferences of the sample, by MBTI type, were calculated at the item level using four-way ANOVA tests. As expected, extroverts have a significant preference ($p<.05$) over introverts for the following instructor behaviors: "displays enthusiasm," "displays a sense of humor," and "encourages class discussion." Intuitives valued more highly than sensing types, behaviors which "encourage independent thinking;" while sensing types preferred "presents material in a logical sequence;" and feeling types valued more highly than thinking types "warmth and friendliness" and "responsiveness to students' individual needs." As expected, perceptive types valued more highly than judgment types, "having a sense of humor." While these behavioral preferences were consistent with those suggested in other research, five of the 14 predicted preferences were not found to be significantly preferred by the expected MBTI type.

Implications

The results of this study can find practical application in the field of adult continuing education in both instructional development activities and in the preparation of instructor evaluation instruments. For example, part-time faculty are being used increasingly for the instruction of adult continuing education students. These faculty typically have considerable subject matter competence and they usually teach subjects in fields where they are employed full time. Yet, due to limited prior teaching experience, they often know little about the expectations or characteristics of their students. The findings from studies such as this can broaden an instructor's awareness of behaviors to consider in their own teaching, contribute to an understanding of the personality characteristics of students in their class and help instructors recognize the instructional behaviors which are preferred by students having different personality types.

The underlying assumption of this research has been that the views of adult students are worth listening to in the development and improvement of teaching practices. This study has identified what instructional behaviors are valued by an important segment of adult continuing education and the study has shown that certain behaviors are valued more highly than others, based in part on student personality differences.

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ORGANIZATIONAL ANALYSIS AND ITS IMPACT CAPABILITY ON ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES

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INTRODUCTION

Nigeria is Africa's most populous country with an estimated 100 million people. One of every four Africans is a Nigerian. The country's land area is 357,000 square miles, about the combined sizes of Colorado, Kansas, Nebraska, and Wyoming. According to UNESCO (1972) Nigeria has an illiteracy rate of 75 percent. Since the independence of Nigeria in 1960, the government has embarked on an expansive national educational development campaign at the primary, secondary, and higher education levels. In one important area, the expansion of federal universities increased from one institution in 1960 to 24 institutions by 1983.

There has been a long history of sporatic efforts to implement effective adult education programs in Nigeria. In 1951, the colonial government endorsed the first national policy on adult education. (Fafunwa, 1974). The specific focus of this pioneering policy framework was the aim to organize facilities for remedial primary education of adults, particularly in the rural areas.

The obvious omission in this early national policy was the specification of the responsibility of the institution of higher education. At the time, there was only one university serving the whole of Nigeria. At the onset of the independence of Nigeria in 1960, there was a dramatic expansion of institutions of higher education throughout the country. All of these newly established federal universities had departments of adult education and extra-mural studies. In spite of the proliferation of these institutions providing adult education services, the illiteracy rate was not reduced significantly during the 1960's and the combined efforts of all federal agencies yielded a minimum reward. (Omolewa, 1979).

In 1969, the National Curriculum Conference was held in Lagos for the purpose of reviving and identifying new national goals for the education of both youth and adults. There were three important recommendations relevant to adult education which came out of this conference. One of which, for the first time, dealt with the role of the universities and other tertiary institutions. The recommendation stated that:

> "The service role of our universities should be geared towards continuing adult education for the masses through evening, weekend, vacation and refresher courses. The universities should relate more to other levels of education and education agencies. " (Federal Ministry of Education, 1970).

This important recommendation inferred the service aspect implicit to providing operational programs of literacy education by the universities, but was not inclusive of other functions of the departments of adult education and extra-mural studies as they were currently being carried out.

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A new National Policy on Education was adopted in 1977 and revised in 1981. Adult education is described in this current policy as follows:

> "Adult Education and Non-Formal Education consists of functional literacy, remedial, continuing, vocational, aesthetic, cultural and civic education for youths and adults outside the formal school system". (National Policy on Education, 1981).

Although the description of adult education provided in the new policy is broad and inclusive, it is clear from analyzing the objectives of the policy that the central focus of adult education in Nigeria is on literacy education. However, the new policy does not provide a definitive description of the functions to be carried out by the varied existing agencies and organizations, nor does it specify roles and responsibilities of the universities.

The National Mass Literacy Campaign was launched on September 8, 1982 by President Alhaji Shehu Shagari. The campaign's stated goal is to "eradicate mass illiteracy from Nigeria in a ten year period". (ibid.). Without question this is an ambitious and somewhat unrealistic goal, in view of the massive dimension of the problem that exists in the country. The forces involved in adult literacy education are numerous and complex in Nigeria. The problem of poor cooperation and coordination of efforts among these forces must be minimized to ensure that an efficient and effective delivery system of literacy education is acheived. The universities are in pivotal positions for making key and substantial contributions to the literacy process. However, very little attention has been given to role definitions of university adult education departments in relationship to national development goals.

EMERGING AIMS OF UNIVERSITY ADULT EDUCATION

The Nigerian federal university is an amorphous hybrid of the British and American models of higher education. Today most universities in Nigeria have adult education departments, extra-mural studies, or continuing education centers which are involved in a variety of programs designed to educate adults within and outside the university walls. Most of the universities organize evening classes primarily for school certificate failures. At the universities of Lagos, Ibadan, Ife, Benin, Zaria, and Nsukka, there are academic programs of adult education which grant degrees to persons preparing to become professional adult educators. These specialized academic programs prepare students for administrative, teaching, and other leadership roles in the areas of adult literacy, community development, extension services, and industrial training. The University of Ibadan, founded in 1948, has established an impressive history of training and research in adult education. Ibadan has been conducting a longitudinal experimental literacy research project since 1975. Unfortunately, the newer universities have not replicated the Ibadan model to the extent of effecting a national concensus of goals and objectives of university programs. There is an observed lack of communication and coordination among the universities to formulate role definitions in relation to organizational capacities and institutional missions. A number of universities are actively engaged in relating their resources to various aspects of adult literacy education. The areas which appear to merit a high priority of attention are training, research, planning, and evaluation. These areas of attention are increasingly becoming the basis for the emerging roles of the universities. The method of role identification has two components, i.e., to fully understand what constitutes the literacy process, and to know the availability of resources of a particular university in order to apply these resources effectively and efficiently to the process of adult literacy programs. Therefore, it is imperative that an organizational analysis be conducted as a systematic way of assessing the university's impact capability on adult literacy programs.

PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

The federal universities of Nigeria are expected to play a major role in the literacy process initiated through the Mass Literacy Campaign in 1982. The University of Ibadan, the oldest and premier institution, has been successful in the areas of research, training, and the development of adult literacy projects. This record of accomplishment and productivity has been somewhat unstudied and unknown, particularly to the new universities as they strive to identify their roles and missions.

The aims of the study were to conduct an organizational analysis of the Department of Adult Education at the University of Ibadan for the purpose of determining the components of the adult literacy education process, and to analyze existing resources which together would reflect the impact capability of the programs. An attendant aim of the study was to conduct a survey at five of the newer universities to identify organizational components of adult education, and to ascertain personnel perceptions regarding the role of adult education in an order of priority.

METHODOLOGY

The population of the study consisted of six federal universities in Nigeria. (N = 6). A case study was conducted at the University of Ibadan and survey research procedures were utilized on five universities. The survey was designed to collect data and describe conditions and perceptions as they existed at the time.

The case study procedure involved the development of an interview schedule which was designed to collect data about the following:

1. Components of the Literacy Process
    a. Training
    b. Planning
    c. Research and Evaluation
    d. Preparation of Materials
    e. Teaching the Adult
2. Analysis of University Resources
    a. Human Resources
    b. Physical Resources
    c. Skills
    d. Knowledge
    e. Services

The survey instrument utilized in the study was an original questionnaire designed to: (a) ascertain personnel perceptions on a 5 point Likert-type scale, and (b) collect descriptive data which would identify the organizational structures of programs and services found among the departments of adult education and extra-mural studies within each of the five universities.

The developmental stages of constructing the interview schedule and questionnaire evolved in this manner: (a) selection of a series of major questions and sub-questions, (b) generation of specific headings and items, (c) review by jury of experts, (d) revision, (e) field testing and finalizing instrument.

The case study and survey was initiated in the six federal universities in December, 1982. A follow-up questionnaire was sent to all non-respondents (N=5) in February, 1983. The survey plan also included the provision and recognized the desirability to conduct on-site interviews with at least two of the surveyed universities. This was accomplished in April, 1983

FINDINGS AND SUMMARY

I. University of Ibadan - Department of Adult Education

The Department was established in 1949. In 1980, there was an enrollment of 181 full-time professional students and 7,304 extra-mural and other students. The Department is one of the largest in the University of Ibadan. Today the Department engages in more activities in support of research, teaching and community services than at its inception. The type of programs and services related to adult literacy education found were:

1. Academic Preparation Curricula
    a. Doctor of Philosophy
    b. Master of Philosophy
    c. Master of Education
    d. Bachelor of Education
    e. Diploma
    f. Certificate
    g. Staff Training (Literacy Campaign)
2. Projects, Research, and Services
    a. Extra-Mural Studies
    b. Continuing Education Center
    c. Extension Services
    d. Experimental Literacy Project
    e. Materials and Publications
    f. Seminars and Conferences

Table I provides the enrollment of students by program area for the period 1977 through 1980. Table II provide the number of graduating professionsl adult educators for the respective four-year period.

Table I

Student Enrollment: Department of Adult Education

Program	1976/77	1977/78	1978/79	1979/80
Extra-Murals	8,803	7,394	7,293	7,304
Diploma	111	101	94	71
Certificate	6	5	3	2
B.Ed.	58	60	59	99
M.Ed.	2	3	6	6
M.Phil.	2	2	1	1
Ph.D.	1	1	1	2

(Nigerian National Council, 1981)

Table II

Graduates: Department of Adult Education

Program	1976/77	1977/78	1978/79	1979/80
Certificate	5	4	3	2
Diploma	48	42	46	30
B.Ed.	19	22	13	26
Masters	1	2	6	4

(Nigerian National Council, 1981)

The number of full-time staff were 9 members who teach the full-time professional students. Statistics were unavailable for part-time instructors who teach in the extra-mural programs. It is estimated that there are about 250 part-time instructors. Staffing was reduced by about 20 percent during the four-year period because of university budget reductions. The university's physical facilities, while minimum, are adequate. The curricula offerings are competency-based for many of the programs. The researcher concluded that the programs are operating at their maximum capacity in terms of the availability of personnel and resources.

II. Five Selected Universities

A 100 percent return was recorded for the survey population (N=5) of the newer universities. Descriptive information was collected via questionnaire which provided a profile of the adult education programs offered by type at each of the following universities:

1. Ahmadu Bello
2. Benin
3. Ife
4. Lagos
5. Nsukka

Table III provides a classification scheme for catagorizing adult education programs according to; as an academic discipline, and as a field of practice.

Table III

TYPE OF ADULT EDUCATION IN FIVE SELECTED FEDERAL UNIVERSITIES - 1983

ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS OFFERED		Universities				
		Ahmadu Bello	Benin	Ife	Lagos	Nigeria Nsukka
ACADEMIC	Staff Training (Literacy Campaign)	X				X
	Certificate in AE	X				
	Certificate in Trade Unionism					
	Diploma in AE					X
	Bachelor of Ed/B.A.		X		X	X
	Master of Ed.	X			X	X
	Master of Arts			X		
	Master of Philosophy				X	
	Doctorate of Philosophy			X	X	
	External Degree				X	
PRACTICE	Extra-Mural Studies	X	X	X		X
	Continuing Ed. Center				X	
	Distance Ed.	X			X	
	Extension Service			X		X
	Research (Literacy)				X	
	Seminars/Conferences	X	X		X	X
	Publications		X	X	X	

X = in operation

The questionnaire also yielded responses to items designed to ascertain personnel perceptions as to "the role of adult education". The following major questions and responses in rank order were tabulated and recorded:

Question 1: What are the specific objectives of your department?
Response: Rank 1 - Training
Rank 2 - Planning
Rank 3 - Research

Question 2: What should be the specific objectives of your department in relation to national development goals?
Response: Rank 1 - Research
Rank 2 - Training
Rank 3 - Planning

This perceptual analysis revealed that the departments view research as the major activity that will enhance the impact capability of the department.

IMPLICATIONS

Increasingly, universities in Nigeria are seeking to identify the role that they can most appropriately and effectively perform in the adult literacy process as it relates to the national development goals of the Mass Literacy Campaign. Conducting an organizational analysis is a efficient way of assessing the university's resources which will reflect its impact capability to meet the challenge of bringing about a significant reduction of an illiterate population.

The data collected and analyzed in this study seems to suggest that as role definitions emerge, there is a necessity to assess the organizational capacity of the university's resources so as to maximize impact capabilities of adult literacy programs.

In conclusion, this study provided a beginning approach to analyzing the organizational structures in relation to functions of the adult literacy process. The data reflect certain realities which arise from the present structures. If the structures were to change then a re-analysis of available resources would have to be conducted. This would suggest a continuing need for a self-study to be carried out by the universities. The institutional self-study should involve a more definitive and indepth longitudinal investigation of factors which address at least three concerns. First to examine in detail all of the components which make up the process of adult literacy education. Second, to examine in detail the primary and secondary resources of the universities. Finally, to compare the requirements of adult literacy education with the available university resources so as to be able to realistically determine the impact capability of the university's program.

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ADULT DEVELOPMENT THROUGH TIME: ITS MEANING FOR CAREER AND LIFE SATISFACTION

BY

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Much is assumed but little is presently known about the relationship between faculty members' job satisfaction at the end of 15 years or more at a selected midwestern university (MU) and their life satisfaction.

In a study of the antecedents of life satisfaction at age 70 by Mussen, Honzik and Eichorn (1982), based on data obtained from young parents (30-34 years of age) in 1930-31 and data obtained about 40 years later in a follow-up study using cluster analysis, significant correlation was found between job satisfaction at age 30-33 and life satisfaction ratings at age 70. While the number of subjects in the follow-up was small (53 mothers, 25 fathers) and the correlations modest (.29 for mothers, .39 for fathers), both were significant at the .05 level.

Palmore (1982) studied variables thought to be predictors of longevity during a 25-year longitudinal study of aging, and found that among the strongest predictors for men was work satisfaction; however, it was not a significant predictor for women. Panelists in the study at Duke University were 270 volunteers of ages 60 to 94 in 1955-59, when the base data were obtained. Few other studies have explored this relationship between work satisfaction and life satisfaction over time; and to our knowledge, no such studies have been conducted on university faculty.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was threefold. First, we set out to describe and assess job satisfaction of selected faculty members who have served at (MU) for 15 years or more. Second, we explored level of life satisfaction as reported by these individuals. Finally, we examined the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction in this group.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Our problem is part of the larger search for assessment of quality of life. The study is significant in three ways. First, the results contribute knowledge about the relationship between self-reported job satisfaction and self-reported life satisfaction in this sample. Second, results of the study provide insight into the patterns and sources of life satisfaction and job satisfaction in this group. Third, the results suggest ways to improve job satisfaction and productivity on the part of faculty members.

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REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Studies of work suggest that work experience can "provide a sense of mastery, of personal effectiveness, which increases one's sense of satisfaction" (Rainwater, 1974: 366). In this study, we explored characteristics of the work environment which contributed to a sense of job satisfaction, an important research direction stressed by Furstenberg, Jr. (1974: 344): "Relatively few studies have measured such important features of the work experience as duration of employment, time spent at work, compensation, security, occupational duties, and opportunities for promotion"—all areas we studied. Furthermore, we have examined these factors from the point of view of the worker, a research approach Scanzoni (1970) encouraged, when he said: "Even less studied is the way the job experience is perceived by the job holder."

Besides examining the relationship between what a person does on the job and how it contributes to satisfaction, we analyzed circumstances which also encourage productivity, a much-debated issue according to Kahn (1974: 214): "The evidence indicates that satisfaction is related to productivity in some circumstances and not in others, and that these circumstances have yet to be fully defined. Past work has included many theoretical arguments in favor of the satisfaction-productivity hypothesis."

Recently, Angus Campbell (1981), a long-time student of well-being in people, noted that "occupation is a well-recognized mark of status in this country and most others . . . ." Mussen, Hanzik and Eichorn (1982) in probing for the antecedents of life satisfaction reported significant correlations, although on a modest scale, between life satisfaction and job satisfaction.

Relationships between life satisfaction, family, and job (Furstenberg, Jr.: 1974) have indicated a greater relationship between family and life satisfaction than job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Wilson, 1967; Kasl, 1974). Correlations between job satisfaction . . . and life satisfaction are fairly low for men (low .40s) and even lower for women (Bradburn, 1969; Brayfield, et al., 1957). Correlations between indices of vocational adjustment and personal adjustment run somewhat lower, and correlations between job satisfaction and symptom-based indices of mental health are still lower (in mid .20s) (Super and Crites, 1962; Veroff et al., 1962).

From the review of literature, we have concluded that there is disagreement among researchers about the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Also, there are competing views among researchers about which characteristics of the work environment contribute in what ways to both job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Finally, most studies have been conducted in industrial work environments; we did not locate relevant studies conducted in university settings.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Two principal data collection instruments was used in this study. First, ten participants were administered the Life Satisfaction Index Z (LSI-Z), an 18 item measure which has recently (1974) been used with persons 18-96 years of age. Index Z was developed by Wood, Wylie and Sheafer (1969) from an earlier Index A (LSI-A) developed by Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin (1961).

Scores on the LSI-Z were used to validate university faculty career development history self-reports, categorized as "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory."

The second method employed was an interview, using a 25 item, open-ended interview guide. Ten subjects were selected for this pilot study. They were included in the study on the basis of their (1) having been at MU 15 years or more and (2) having been employed in different academic disciplines.

Ten subjects were interviewed: five men and five women. Five had retired, the others still active. Represented were business affairs, student affairs, library science, curricular advising, educational psychology, elementary education, geography, and physical education. Interview time ranged from 1½ to 3 hours.

RESULTS

The LSI-Z explored five categories: (1) zest for life, (2) resolution and fortitude, (3) congruence of expectations with achievements, (4) positive self-concept and (5) mood-tone. Respondent scores ranged from 25 to a perfect 36. These LSI-Z scores were compared with interview responses in order to validate interview data.

The interview guide focused on five categories of responses:

Category 1: Ranking of Reasons for Joining Faculty/Staff.

Pattern: Most responses centered around propinquity. The institution was close. The person followed a spouse to the institution. All appreciated "a step up." A few were given long-range missions for major development in the institution.

Category 2: Checking Congruence Between Job Expectations and Accomplishments.

Pattern: Some lists of accomplishments were longer than others. All remembered rewards that served to value respondent's contribution as expected. All had accomplishments they took sincere pride in. Pervasive effect of long disappointed expectation was noted as possible growth limiting factor. Role of significant others was important in every case.

Category 3: Required Tasks, Freely Chosen Tasks.

Pattern: In most cases respondents could not reflect adquately into the past nor could they distinguish clearly between the two kinds of tasks. The ten interviewees fell into two categories of those who actively wished to play and control their lives and those who, for one reason or another, went along with what was asked of them.

Category 4: Perception of Job Satisfaction.

Pattern: Expression of job satisfaction fell into four categories: challenge, financial rewards, co-worker relationships, and university working conditions. Job satisfaction appeared neither as the result of a particular stage nor of an evolving phase. Rather, job satisfaction evolved in response to "contexts" in time.

Category 5: Suggestions for Newcomers.

Pattern: Unexpectedly, several respondents declined to give any advice. The other responses clustered around planning and forethought. All responded that the satisfaction with university life was not exclusively monetary rewards.

DISCUSSION

While data drawn from the small sample keeps us from arriving at any firm conclusions, we have derived some "loose patterns" which further research will likely clarify. Much of the adult literature falls into one of two camps: support for the theory that (1) people go through stages as they grow older or that (2) people go through phases. Our initial analysis leads us to suspect that neither is true. People behave in different ways as they grow older because different things happen to them. A more "evolving" self, neither bound to a phase nor a stage explanation of development, may be the most appropriate description.

From our limited sample, it seemed that faculty who linked job satisfaction to life satisfaction (that is, life satisfaction was in large part dependent on job success) tended to self-initiate projects, adapt to create productivity out of what others labeled more "restrictive institutional policies," and generally were busier. Some faculty almost viewed the university setting as an "avocation," placing greater value to home/family commitments or a "second" job outside the university. These extreme views of the value of university life establish a framework for further research: What provides continuing motivation for faculty in a university setting and how the ebb and tide of adult development impinges on it remains a central question to be studied.

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Multi-Trait-Multi-Method Validation of Guglielmino's Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale

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As self-direction in learning is a popular idea among educators of adults, the literature on the topic is increasing (Guglielmino, 1977; Smith and Haverkamp, 1977). Yet educators of adults continue to search for a method or procedure to identify self-directed learners. Guglielmino's Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) (1977) is one such procedure. Savoie (1979) reports SDLRS scores are significantly associated with successful performance of nurses in a learning context that required self-direction in learning. Torrance and Mourad (1978) also report the construct validity of the SDLRS is supported by findings of significant relationships with three measures of originality among college graduate students.

Additional study is desired before the SDLRS confidently can be accepted as having construct validity. The literature on the SDLRS is silent on two major points of concern, (a) The effects of cultural differences as may be revealed by comparative studies and (b) The association between instructor perceptions of self-direction in learning and SDLRS scores.

Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to report the procedure and findings of two studies conducted by the investigators to accomplish the following objectives:

1. To add to SDLRS validation efforts by employing a multi-trait-multi-method research procedure based on correlations between SDLRS scores and other measures: dogmatism, agreement response set, faculty ratings, race and sex.

2. To explicate the possible effect of cultural differences by comparing SDLRS scores of Black and White college students.

3. To identify associations and differences that may be identified with other variables such as age and educational achievement level.

The attractiveness of an instrument to assist educators in the identification of self-directed learners is amply illustrated in the literature (Dressel and Thompson, 1973). Such a method (or instrument) is appealing for several reasons: (a) it would be useful in counseling new students; (b) it would be helpful to instructors who find themselves

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with a "mix" of students with and without self-direction attitudes and skills; (c) it might be helpful to learners who aspire to become more self-directing in their learning behavior; and (d) knowledge gained in the development of assessment procedures might be useful in the development of procedures to strengthen self-directed learning skills and attitudes.

Literature Review

The literature implies there are some clearly identifiable behaviors and abilities associated with self-direction in learning: intelligence, independence, confidence, persistence, initiative, creativity, ability to critically evaluate one's self, patience, desire to learn, and a task orientation. Other characteristics include tolerance of ambiguity, ability to discover new approaches (flexibility), previous success with independent learning, preference for working alone, knowledge of a variety of resources, ability to plan and complete a plan of action.

Guglielmino (1977) reduced the above list of descriptions through the use of factor analysis during the development of the SDLRS. She describes highly self-directed learners as individuals who exhibit initiative, independence and persistence. Furthermore, they are capable of accepting responsibility for their own learning, problems are viewed as challenges and curiosity and self-discipline are evident. Self-directed learners are perceived to combine self-confidence with a strong desire to learn while possessing the skills to organize time, learning activities, set and maintain an appropriate pace and derive pleasure from goal oriented learning.

Methodology

Conceptual Framework

The two investigations reported here were based on procedures recommended by Campbell and Fiske (1959) for establishing construct validity. Construct validity is the term that addresses questions of "meaning" attributed to a scale such as the SDLRS. Investigators concerned with construct validity usually want to know what psychological property or properties can "explain" the variance of an instrument. The investigator is more interested in the property being measured than in the test itself (Kerlinger, 1964). Construct validation is called for whenever an instrument is to be interpreted as a measure of some attribute or quality such as self-direction learning readiness that is not otherwise operationally defined (Cronback & Meehl, 1955). Fiske (1971) concludes that construct validity is concerned simultaneously with the validity of the construct and the validity of the instrument.

A first step in establishing an instrument as a measure of a construct is to state explicitly the nomological network from which the items making up the instrument were derived. Underwood (1957) warned, however, that a test designed as the operational definition of a construct might not be measuring what the theoretical, "literary" conception of the construct postulated. In order to avoid the danger of assuming a measure is valid simply because it is based on theory, Campbell and Fiske (1959) suggested providing evidence of construct validation through the use of a multi-trait-multi-method matrix.

Convergent validity can also be investigated if two tests are presumed to measure the same construct. Significant correlation between them would be expected (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). Evidence for convergent validity would exist if a measure of self-directed learning readiness were to have a moderate correlation with other measures of the construct.

In the two studies reported here, Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale provides the primary basis for establishing divergent validity and faculty assessment scale provide the primary basis for determining convergent validity. The agreement response scale provides a means of examining performance on both the SDLRS and dogmatism. Age, educational achievement level, race and sex provide additional variables for further analyses.

Theoretically, dogmatism was posited as being different from the construct of self-directed learning readiness (SDLRS) while faculty ratings, based on the attitudes believed to underlie the construct of SDLR was hypothesized as being similar. Hence, a significant correlation between dogmatism scores and SDLRS scores would raise questions concerning validity of SDLRS. In turn, a significant correlation between faculty rating scores and SDLRS would support the proposition of validity. Agreement Response Scale (ARS) scores positively associated with dogmatism and not SDLRS would also be supportive of the argument for construct validity. Negatively associated ARS scores and dogmatism scores and SDLRS scores would also be evidence of the construct validity of the SDLRS. Associations between age, educational level, race and sex and SDLRS would raise further questions that should be examined in future studies.

Procedures

The two studies included approximately 100 Black and White students enrolled in two Georgia colleges. In study one the N = 136; 63 Black students, 70 White students and 3 students of foreign nationality; in the second investigation N = 92; 41 Black students and 51 White students. Each student completed the following instruments: (1) Guglielmino's Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (Guglielmino, 1977). (2) Agreement Response Set (Couch & Kenniston, 1960). (3) Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale (Rokeach, 1960). In addition, each subject provided information on age, educational achievement level, race and sex.

Instructors rated each subject on self-direction in learning based on the attributes identified by Guglielmino in her original work. Different instructor assessment forms were used in each investigation.

Findings

Selected major findings of the two studies are reported in chronological order in the following pages. The first study was conducted in 1981. The second investigation was designed and conducted in 1982 and 1983 (some data from the second study have not been analyzed, therefore, the 1983 study analysis is preliminary in nature).

Multiple and Pearsonian correlation statistics and analysis of variance procedures were used in both studies. An alpha level of 0.05 was established for rejecting the null hypotheses.

Selected findings are reported below:

Study One	Study Two
1. SDLRS was not significantly related to dogmatism or faculty ratings.	1. SDLRS was not significantly related to ARS, dogmatism or faculty ratings
2. SDLRS and ARS were significantly inversely related and SDLRS scores were significantly associated with age and student race.	2. SDLRS was significantly associated with age; no significant differences in SDLRS were noted between races
3. Black subjects scored higher on SDLRS, ARS and dogmatism.	3. There is a significant difference in dogmatism and ARS according to race.
4. ARS and dogmatism varied by race and age; SDLRS score and faculty assessment varied by race. Dogmatism varied by educational level.	4. Faculty ratings differed according to race.

The second study was primarily designed to examine the possible effects of the faculty rating scale on the associations between the scale and SDLRS. The results, which approached significance (0.056) indicate the possibility of a scale effect on the results.

Discussion

Both studies reported mixed results. First, there is no significant relationship, according to the predetermined criteria of 0.05, between the faculty assessments of students and SDLRS scores; however, in the second study the correlation was significant at the 0.056 level. Significant negative associations between SDLRS and dogmatism are divergent findings that support construct validity. Mixed results in the ARS, SDLRS associations are difficult to interpret and explain. Dogmatism and ARS correlations and the negative dogmatism and SDLRS scores taken together also support the construct validity of the SDLRS. Student race and age seem to have some influence on the faculty rating results. Further analysis of the dates are suggested by these findings.

Both studies failed to produce convergent findings concerning SDLRS scores and faculty assessment. Stronger associations with SDLRS scores are noted between age, educational level (except in study two) and race which are weakly associated with teacher ratings. As a result, White, older students with more education were usually rated higher on self-direction than were Black, younger students with less education.

Conclusions

1. The findings are supportive of the validity of the SDLRS based on convergent and divergent associations between variables used in these multi-trait-multi-method analyses. The direction of the findings concerning the associations are consistent with the theoretical assumptions of the SDLRS.
2. Race appears to be a factor in faculty ratings on self-direction learning readiness.
3. Age is significantly associated with faculty ratings and SDLRS scores.

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ADULTS LEARNING ALONE

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Introduction

Adult Education literature clearly supports the concept that adults should, could and can learn alone: Allen Tough's examination of what adults learn and how: Malcolm Knowles' analysis of self-directed learning processes; Robert Smith's consideration of learning how to learn, are examples of the support adult educators give to the concept. The reality is that all adults are not prepared to be self-directed. If one believes the concept is valid however then it is appropriate to determine 1) the basic problems associated with adults lack of readiness to be self-directed and learn alone, 2) the ways to analyze/measure stages of readiness, 3) the problems in the development of the skills to acquire the readiness, 4) the available testing instruments both methodologically and substantively, 5) the research issues and philosophical questions, and, 6) to review a reasonable synthesis of theory about learning, thus placing this concept into a research prospective.

The symposium will begin with an analysis of "adult learned disabilities" in which the research on "learned helplessness" and psychological aspects of adult learning will be examined in order to demonstrate the depth of the problem of non-readiness and pose research questions. Secondly, a longitudinal research study concerned with "student-directed learning by adults, in which acquisition of skills and abilities to carry out self-directed learning activities," will be presented. Thirdly, the "methodological and substantive issues in measuring self-directedness" will be described. Fourthly, questions on the facilitators' procedures in the present use of the concept, and their relationship to learning activities planned by and for adults today, will be identified. Fifthly, critique/audience reaction/discussion and questions.

An overall goal of this symposium is to raise issues, research concerns and problems rather than to solve them. This interest stems from the fact that research on these topics has been slow and of interest to only a few persons in the field. It is hoped that a clearer interpretation of needed research will spark more interest and speed research in this area by professors and graduate students. Individual presentor's papers will expand upon the brief comments included in this overview and include further research issues.

Adult Learned Disabilities - Even

The "adult learning alone" concept is predicated upon the beliefs that adults are self-directed learners; possess the ability to direct their efforts to attain certain goals; can guide their learning processes and activities; can interact with environmental choices and make decisions; and, will provide intrinsic approval of said decisions. It is expected these decisions will be appropriate for the individual adult.

What is wrong with these premises? philosophically? psychologically? Can all adults learn alone? When is it, and why is it that adults are not ready to learn alone? What has taken place in the lives of adults to bring about a condition in which they cannot learn alone? Is it appropriate to suggest that adults should learn alone? Is it natural for some and not for others? Do we allow for this choice in adult education? Do we assume too much? Are we operating on false assumptions about adults learning process? What are these processes?

The antithesis of self-direction is known as "Learned Helplessness." The principle states that the more society, community and individuals do for a person, the more he/she become dependent upon them and less capable of directing his/her own life. M. E. Seligman describes how this phenomenon has permeated our lives and if left untreated can debilitate our society. The more society takes care of people, the more they expect it, and less willing they are to be self-directive. It is a "learned" helplessness and is not inherited.

T. L. Boyd indicates "helplessness in the behavior manifested when an organism learns that an outcome and response are independent." The helpless organism has developed cognitive expectations and reduces motivation to respond, with resultant behavioral deficits, e.g., a) behavior passivity--failure to initiate activities; b) negative expectations--readiness to construe actions as appropriate; c) sense of hopelessness and helplessness. These three components--motivation, cognition and emotion--are deficient in adults demonstrating learned helplessness. Learned helplessness occurs not when a cognitive expectancy is developed but rather when some learned response competes with the acquisition of a new response on a soluble task. Findings indicate that the more institutionalized people become, the more helpless they are. Institutionalized is both figurative and actual in emphasis; e.g., welfare system, nursing home, social security system, unions, among others.

If such human conditions are learned, they can be unlearned. Becoming aware of this concept of learned helplessness has begun to uncover the reasons why adults react as they do when learning and why some adults do not take risks at learning alone. The reasons why adults' lack of ability to learn alone, to personally initiate their own learning or feel confident in knowing correctness of knowledge or conceptual formation, can also be interrelated with other psychological theories of adults and education. "Learned Helplessness" concept suggests that these learners believe learning must be guided by teachers, do not believe in their own ideas, have a low self-concept, are in position one of Perry's Intellectual Development, are conformist in Loevinger's Ego Development, have basic mistrust of selves and others, do not have positive role identity, have little emotional stability, feel themselves weak, feel isolated and not in control It appears to be cognitive field dependent in the extreme.

W. Dyer wrote Pulling Your Own Strings to examine the problem of victimization which has become acute and widespread in this country. The feeling and reality of the lack of control over factors influencing adults lives is a result of a learned social involvement. B. F. Skinner's philosophy has contributed to this depressive view. He has advocated that "as we learn more about the effects of environment, we have less reason to attribute any part of human behavior to an autonomous controlling agent." It is sad that such thinking exists. Such thinking has made a major contribution to learned helplessness.

Non-readiness to learn on one's own is increasing rather than decreasing. If adult educators believe self-directed adult learning is important, much research needs to be conducted to begin to assist adults to take control over their lives and learning.

Research needs to be developed on a) helping adults move from states of helplessness to self-directedness, b) re-examining purposes and approaches while working with adult learners who exhibit great stress in becoming self-directed, c) recognizing the pathology and extreme psychological impact of change on persons who are in states of helplessness, d) becoming more sensitive to the reality of the average adult and the great difference between educated and quasi-educated adults, e) developing more perceptive measures of readiness to be self-directed--more in-depth analysis of adult learners, f) incorporating what is known about adults into teaching practice instead of treating it lightly. Lastly, we need to examine how to help adults develop a perspective on their lives.

Previous to this, adult learning research has been concerned about increasing effective use of abilities believed inherent within an adult: e.g., ability to learn, intelligence, stability, styles, cognitive structures, memory, physical factors, response and reaction time and other personality variables which contribute to learning. Learned helplessness begins with a belief that disfunctional behavior may preclude and overshadow other learning variables and it may need special consideration in the teaching/learning process.

Student-Directed Learning Abilities - Caffarella

There are five major conclusions which can be drawn from the findings on two studies in which 200+ students in 10 universities were asked about their competencies to be self-directed learners, the worth of such practices and personal experiences using self-directed learning after the course in which contracting took place.

The first is that the use of the learning contract had no effect on the student's readiness for self-directed learning. This could be due in part to the very high pre-test scores (a mean one standard deviation above the normalized mean). Based on Brockett's (1982, 1983) comments on the SDLRS, that the scale is "highly oriented toward learning through books and schooling," (p. 19, 1983), it is not surprising that graduate level students should obtain higher than average scores. These higher than average scores calls into question the appropriateness of the use of this scale with people of higher levels of schoolings, especially those with graduate degrees. This lack of appropriateness may also be related to what the scale is actually measuring in terms of a definition of self-directed learning as noted by Brockett (1982, 1983).

The second conclusion was that the use of the learning contract only had an effect on three of the twelve competencies of self-directed learning that were studied. Students increased their ability: 1) to translate learning needs into learning objectives in a form that makes possible the accomplishment of these objectives; 2) to identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of learning objectives; and 3) to select effective strategies for using learning resources. Of these three competencies, translating learning needs into learning objectives appeared to be the most consistent in terms of the increase in that competency. These conclusions mirror an earlier study by Caffarella, (1982, 1983) where students perceived they had increased their competencies for self-directed learning to a greater degree in two of the three areas listed above: 1) the ability to translate learning needs into learning objectives and 2) the ability to identify human and material resources. Based on these consistent conclusions, there appears to be certain competencies for self-directedness in learning that can be fostered as part of a formal learning situation and others that in fact may be blocked by this same situation.

The third conclusion was that the changes in students' competencies for self-directed learning based on the content area of the course the student was enrolled in, content area of adult education courses students had completed, the age of the student, having taken other courses using the learning contract approach, and the graduate program in which the students were enrolled were minimal. It appears that the differences that were noted could be traced more to the individual courses and the instructors in those courses, versus any major changes due to the variables studied.

The fourth conclusion was that overall these students believe using a LCF in terms of its educational merit in graduate courses is both valuable and worthwhile, and that its use should be continued in graduate courses in adult education. This conclusion does agree with the findings of an earlier study by Caffarella (1982, 1983) where students also supported this premise, but the agreement was not as strong. These findings more closely mirror those of Kasworm (1982) where one-quarter of the respondents noted they probably would not choose another self-directed learning course.

The final conclusion is that a large number of these students are presently using the competencies they learned through using the LCF in their present teaching situations and personal learning experience both at work and at home. In comparison to Caffarella's (1982, 1983) earlier study, the percentages on both aspects are almost identical. The competencies most noted by students in both the teaching area and their personal life are related to goal and objective setting, using a variety of methods for learning, and having a better perspective on time management of learning. In the teaching area they also stressed the idea of responding more to the needs and desires of their students and allowing them to be more self-directed in their own learning. Again, these self-reported changes appear to be related to the major gains the respondents made in their self-directed learning competencies.

A number of issues and questions which need to be addressed.

1. If, in fact, we can isolate specific competencies of self-directed learning that can be enhanced through the use of the learning contracts in graduate classes, how can instructors most effectively foster the development of these competencies in students? Or is the value of using the learning contract format more in the teaching of an alternative instructional format rather than fostering specific competencies of self-directed learning?
2. What other types of formats, activities, climate setting and the like could instructors use to enhance other identified competencies of self-directed learning?

3. What should the role be of professors in adult education in furthering the development of students' competencies related to self-directedness in learning? Should professors have this be a major focus or purpose of all course offerings in adult education or would it be more appropriate to stress the development of these competencies in specific courses, depending on the subject matter?
4. If, in fact, we can document that the integration of self-directed learning competencies in graduate programs actually change the practice of students, do these changes really make a difference in helping adults learn and grow? (1983)

Methodological and Substantive Issues in the Measurement of Self-Directed Learning - Brockett

A major focus of adult education research in recent years has been in the area of self-directed learning. Several approaches have been utilized to examine the frequency and nature of such learning as well as the characteristics of those learners who are highly self-directed. One approach to the study of self-directedness has involved the use of the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS), a 58-item Likert scale developed in 1977 to measure the degree to which individuals perceive themselves to possess skills and attitudes conducive to self-directed learning. The present study, which is an outgrowth of an investigation of self-directedness and life satisfaction among older adults, explored the appropriateness of the SDLRS as a measure of self-directedness among a sample of older adults who, on the whole, had completed fewer years of schooling than subjects in previous studies involving the scale.

Sixty-four persons from two residential settings, all of whom were at least 60 years of age, completed the SDLRS. The mean age of the sample was 78.4 years. Participants reported a mean of 10.43 years of formal schooling. While findings indicated that a statistically significant relationship did not exist between age and score on the SDLRS, such a relationship was found between educational attainment and SDLRS score.

Throughout the study, a number of difficulties were noted relative to the administration of the SDLRS. In analyzing the data, certain methodological and substantive concerns emerged. First, many subjects had difficulty completing the scale. These problems tended to focus upon items that were written to be scored in reverse, often employing the use of double-negatives, and upon confusion over the wording of the five response choices. Second, a number of SDLRS items are very much oriented toward schooling and/or learning through books. These concerns were supported through item analysis, test-retest reliability, and observation of the investigator.

While the SDLRS may be appropriate for use among certain segments of the adult population, as supported by previous studies of reliability and validity, the scale does not adequately represent perceptions of self-directedness among persons of lower educational attainment. It is suggested that either another form of the SDLRS or an entirely new instrument be developed.

Adult Instructional Processes and Self-Directedness: Some Research Issues - Smith

If a major curriculum and instructional goal for education is augmenting the learner's ability to engage in self-directed learning, some major research concerns and issues become:

1) What is self-directed learning? a philosophy? a rallying cry? a method? a process?
2) How is it best conceptualized for research/development purposes?
3) What are the key learner competencies for self-directed learning?
4) What actually happens when people learn on their own?
5) How are self-directed, collaborative, and institutional learning interrelated with regard to processes and competencies?
6) How are these competencies fostered by educators?--while teaching subject matter?--in special learning events?--by providing subject matter that stresses problem solving and inquiry?
7) What specific instructor behavior helps people to take control of their own learning?
8) What factors contribute to an individual's readiness for self-directed learning?
9) Are educational agencies really responsible for making clients more self-directed?

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A Multipurpose Examination of the Issues Surrounding Competency Based Education and Competency Based Adult Education

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Introduction

Adult educators who seek clues as to how professions manage controversial issues in public forums might be interested in this symposium. The phenomena of competency-based education (CBE) and competency-based adult education (CBAE), viewed here as relevant and controversial issues, have received attention in the literature recently from both opponents and proponents. The purposes of this symposium are, 1) to examine the issues of CBE and CBAE so that we may clarify their value for practice and thought in the field of adult education, and, 2) to gain awareness of the importance of critical examination of issues, per se. We are not particularly interested in pronouncement of right or wrong, or finding winners and losers. What is of greater concern is to find what can be gained by a thoughtful examination of practice and policy of CBAE.

Definitions and Issues

In the Forum Section of a recent issue of Adult Education Quarterly is an article by Michael Collins entitled "A Critical Analysis of Competency-Based Systems in Adult Education." His article springs from elaborate phenomenological analysis from his dissertation Competency in Adult Education: Applying a Theory of Relevance." (1980, Northern Illinois University). Collins may be one of the most recently published critics of the competency-based movement. To bring us up to date on why criticisms of CBE and CBAE seem to occur to begin with Collins (1983) offers the following analysis:

> To a large extent, skepticism about competency-based models emanates from excessive reductionism, that is, the attempt to explain complex phenomena by discrete, standardized concepts. For example, the revelation that there is a definite list of precisely determined and enumerated competencies constituting effective performance for teachers of adult basic education is likely to draw puzzled responses from adult educators.

The reaction by leaders of Competency-based adult education to Collins's opinions is also, basically, puzzlement. In a subsequent issue of The Adult Education Quarterly,

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there are two rebuttal pieces to Collins's article. One of them is a compendium of criticism from nine adult educators (ten, actually, including the author, James Parker), entitled "In Search of A Real Analysis: CBAE Leaders Respond to the Collins Critique." The article refutes every assertion made by Collins, bar none. The other article, written by Sandra Ratcliff, and titled "Rebuttal to: A Critical Analysis of Competency Based Systems in Adult Education," is probably more gracious but offers a similar treatment of Collins's work. Never is the idea to discredit Collins. Rather, these leaders hope that they can bring new light on the subject of CBAE. Of course, that is what Collins attempted to do as well. What is probably true is that they both do.

Proponents (such as Ratcliff, 1984) accept the following definition of CBE offered by W.G. Spady (1977):

> a data-based, adaptive, performance oriented set of integrated processes that facilitate, measure, record and certify within the complex of flexible time parameters the demonstration of known explicitly stated and agreed upon learning outcomes that reflect successful functioning in life roles.

In this way, competency based education is viewed as a teaching process, as opposed to a curriculum.

Competency Based Adult Education (CBAE) is, likewise, a process of teaching, which emphasizes explicit competencies, a flexible time frame, varying instructional approaches, measurement and certification to ensure "mastery learning," and program adaptability based on student performance.

Collins' Arguments

Collins (1980, 1983), believes that adult educators may have misgivings about CBE and CBAE on a number of grounds. The following are representative of a sampling of problems he has found with CBAE:

* the term "competency," and especially the word "competencies" are widely misused, as exemplified by such redundant phrases as "maximum or minimum competencies;"

* the problem goes beyond issues of semantics pointing to "excessive reductionism" or the attempt to explain complex phenomena by the use of standard and discrete concepts. The quest toward "manageable form," or the desire to measure complex phenomena, places a false aura of exactness which imparts authority to CBE:

* CBE stems from behaviorist foundations insofar as designers of CBE wish to limit all data on human growth to that which is directly observable. When it comes to learning such an approach provides a truncated assessment of real growth;

* the quest for certainty of subject matter leads one into the false notion that what it means to be educated can be assessed in terms of performance. Such a stance toward building curricula prematurely limits options and strategies;

* CBE poses problems for distinctive themes of adult education, namely that the deterministic intent of it is incompatible with voluntary learning, self-directed learning, and client-centered learning.

Proponents' visions of a humanistic CBE may be realized but not before they are able to shed the reputed mantle of behavioristic tendencies, and pre-supposed curricula, either real or imagined.

The Proponents Respond

* Usage of the term competency is not a germane issue, according to Parker (1984) and other CBAE leaders, because one cannot use a dictionary definition to define the system as it is. Moreover, CBAE, as "programmatic activity" (Parker, 1984), is much broader than a mere curriculum (Ratcliff, 1984). Proponents not only refer us to Spady's definition, they offer other ones, such as "the orchestration of personal knowledge, skills, and attitudes relevant to the accomplishment of tasks" (Wayne James, in Parker, 1984). Or, Joe Cooney's three-part definition: "1) the reason a skill is required in a job context; 2) a measurable statement of the skill; 3) a test task which measures the skill in the job context." What the proponents stress in definitions of CBAE seems to be the *approach*, as well as the *mechanics*. Also apparent in their discussion is the importance of *applicable skills* and *measurable outcomes*.

* The "quest toward manageable form," or the desire to measure and therefore maintain control, is also less of an issue than Collins would have us believe, according to the proponents. Collins implies that curricula are predetermined and that students can "take it or leave it." He further suggests that this is reminiscent of the school model, as shown by the example of the Adult Performance Levels (APL). Ratcliff suggests that Collins's assumptions are false and that he confuses CBAE with APL. Quite distinct from a school-based curriculum model CBAE seeks to bring students in on the actual planning of the curriculum. Control, then, is a function of both teachers and students, not the exclusive domain of teachers.

Parker defends the assumption that the real world is categorized and that categorization helps us to deal with chaos. When it comes to CBAE, categories do not limit comprehensiveness or worth of a curriculum. Rather, categories are flexible and ever-changing as is the case in the real world. We are again reminded that it is the process, not the content, of CBAE which ought to be of concern to us.

* Behaviorism has received attention in adult education as being essentially antithetical to our foundational beliefs. Typically, it is uncomplementary to refer to an adult educator as a behaviorist. Ruth Nickse, according to Parker (1984) believes that there is a "saving grace" to behavioristic approaches because, in this way, curricula are better suited to the unique learning needs of adults. This does not preclude a humanistic concern for students. In fact, with such a manageable system, emphasis can be placed on adjustment of the pace and timing of instruction to coincide with the wishes of students. Cooney further suggests that CBAE can be wholistic and take well into account a student's motives and learning style.

* The quest for certainty issue is viewed by proponents in terms of who should decide matters of curricula. Collins suggests that with predetermined models for education we simply avoid thinking about what it means to be educated and rely instead on our ready-to-use curricula. Ratcliff, however, does not believe that CBAE curricula are necessarily so deterministic. Rather, students and teachers together work out goals to be attained. Moreover, Shelton emphasizes that CBAE is in essence a problem-solving strategy. The idea is to ensure to the greatest extent possible that tests and procedures are relevant and transferable to actual living situations.

* As for impact upon distinctive themes of adult education, Parker asserts the importance of learners' involvement in the process, thereby nullifying Collins' contention. Moreover, as Ratcliff informs us, there is no standardization in CBAE, nor does it rely on pre-conceived or mechanistic modes of delivery. "The reality is that CBAE programs are so 'flexible' that standardization is not likely to occur in the near future" (Ratcliff, 1984, p.114).

An Analysis of the Arguments

One of the few points of argument upon which opponents and proponents agree is that constructive criticism of CBE and CBAE is needed. No one suggests that CBAE programs are perfect. There is, in fact, a call by proponents for research, improved practice, and a constant infusion of new ideas. The motives of proponents and opponents, of course, differ, as do ways in which criticism of professional practice is communicated and treated. We each decide for ourselves what constitutes reasonable doubt. Critics can merely bring criticism to our attention. Their interests are typically manifested in the questioning of assumptions, procedures, and policies. When doubt, reasonable or not, is cast on professional practice, it appears to be typical for the professionals to explain their assumptions, procedures, and policies.

Further reflection of this issue might lead us to the realization of roadblocks in the way of effective criticism. Problems of definition appear to be critical. Proponents of CBAE reject common usage definitions in favor of terms which have evolved and gained properties of professional appearance. The proponents reject analysis of the term "competency" because it is the good work of programs themselves which deserves our attention, not an abstract philosophical debate. The parallel might be drawn that an analysis of "special" might not help us understand any better than we already do programs of special education. We must go to the programs themselves to see why they are special.

The struggle for professionals and critics to communicate is related to who predominates the questions for discussion. Debaters, among others, know that an effective strategy for persuasion includes taking the lead by guiding the subject under discussion to fit one's own perspective. Control of the questions in an argument renders an opponents' criticisms useless. Professional insiders have a distinct advantage over critics, because they have reason to believe that definition of key terms, and boundaries of Practice, are a key part of being professional and therefore take on properties of exclusivisity.

Another issue, related to the first, is knowledge. It is not unreasonable to suspect that when a critic is thought to be less knowledgeable than we are about our programs, for example, their suggestions may hold little significance for us. What is less reasonable is the reverse. That is, if a person criticizes our programs he or she must not have knowledge about them. To wit, Collins is admonished by several of the experts to better familiarize himself with examples of CBAE and is even invited to read material which the leaders assume he has not read. Collins' assertions regarding "quest for certainty," to quote Parker, "uncovers what would seem to be Collins' superficial understanding of what CBAE really is. His lack of in-depth study into CBAE as a process, as opposed to a set (or sets) of specific competency lists, is also betrayed (sic)..." (1984, pp 106-107). One does not have to ponder for long to realize what Parker's motives are for bringing readers to such a conclusion. If Collins is unfamiliar with the material his argument loses credibility. However, if we suppose that Collins has already read this material and has visited the programs, which is probable considering the amount of research he has conducted over the years, and comes to the same conclusions anyway, then credibility of proponents suffers. We are left to conclude that a defense of CBAE is simply wrongheaded, Collins's arguments are false, or there are a host of communication problems at work. Or some or all of these.

What is clear from the discussion is that terms used by "insiders" gain certain layers of meaning over the years. At conferences and in correspondence, the leaders have built on the literature and have elaborated upon terms. It is not unusual to find profession-specific terms in use in any profession. Not even painstaking precision in defining terms from outside a profession, can interpret to professionals how those terms have been elaborated, nor can it simplify practice. There is cause for speculation that Collins does not attend CBAE conferences. The very metaphors of operation shift as people learn more and more about actual examples in practice of CBAE. Issues of definition are deferred to issues of practice and even the questions for criticism by "outsiders" are criticized for their naivete, because the metaphors commonly employed, and the connotations attached to them, are unfamiliar to "outsiders" like Collins. If he attends conferences, or manages a CBAE program it is possible that he would accept, or demonstrate a greater understanding of, an "insider's" use of terms. Others might accept his, as well. At a certain point, of course, Collins, himself becomes a CBAE leader.

Conclusions

As we watch the arguments of opponents and proponents of CBAE unfold, we not only increase our stock of knowledge about CBAE, but we learn quite a lot about how people criticize and defend the assumptions of a professional practice. Such a scrutiny helps us to avoid two types of problems: 1) we may wrongly criticize a profession and do damage to it, or 2) we may fail to criticize a professional practice which deserves deliberate examination. Questions that arise for adult educators regarding the first problem include, are we to infer from Collins's criticisms that there is no use for CBAE? So long that it works to the advantage of both students and educators, can we not excuse abstract flaws in its theory?

As for the second problem, is it true that adult educators generally refrain from critical examination of practice and policy? Or are we witnessing typical but undesirable consequences of professionalization when leaders of CBAE give us appearances that CBAE is immune to critical questioning? Does the discovery and specification of the very questions for criticism of CBAE lie beyond the reasons and abilities of those of us outside that given profession? More importantly, is it symptomatic of adult education, and, indeed, most professions, that our own expertise places us in an exclusive culture which claims as a right the management of its own growth, channeling of the literature, and even the determination of what is right and wrong with it?

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SYMPOSIUM

PROBLEMS AND PROMISES OF ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH IN ADULT EDUCATION

CHAIRPERSON:	DR. JAMES H. McELHINNEY	Ball State University
PRESENTORS:	DR. SALLY SCHUMACHER	Virginia Commonwealth University
	DR. ROBERT A. FELLENZ	Texas A&M University
	DR. GARY CONTI	Texas A&M University
	DR. ROY A. WEAVER	Ball State University

Presentors in this symposium have made important research contributions in the study of adult education. In designing and completing their research, each has utilized ethnographic research practices.

DR. ROY A. WEAVER reports some of the arguments voiced against ethnographic methodology and illustrates some of the perceived problems if these methods are used in adult education. But mostly he emphasizes the strengths of ethnographic approaches to research and the potential of this collection of methodologies in examining important research questions in adult education.

DR. SALLY SCHUMACHER reports her successes and problems as she utilized ethnographic methodologies; a case study, a participant-observation team, and the methodologies of detailed field notes, summarizing, on-site observation and triangulation to design, implement and complete a nine-month study of adult beginning readers. She also skillfully applied political and administrative skills to create environments in which data collection could occur.

DR. ROBERT FELLENZ and DR. GARY CONTI report their experiences in designing a study of adult basic education students and summarize their findings. They use the term "naturalistic" rather than "ethnographic" in introducing their summary.

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ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH IN ADULT EDUCATION

Roy A. Weaver
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The promises for using ethnographic methods for studying issues in adult education far outweigh the problems. In fact, the problems that do appear typically emerge out of discussion about improving the quality of ethnographic research studies, not from whether or not the method ought to be used.

The promises of ethnographic method in studies of adult education are as follows: (1) with it's emphasis on the disciplined description of a culture in order to learn the meaning of actions and events, ethnography is more appropriate for studying individual programs and events possessing great variability --a prominent characteristic of most programs in adult education; (2) the method is more likely than other approaches to generating new or alternate theories (Frake,1969), (3) the method provides greater depth of analysis and, as a result, conclusions reached tend to be more valid than "less thick" studies (LeCompte and Goetz, 1982); (4) the method can be combined readily with quantitative analysis to provide a structural framework or theory base for producing greater meaning.

Problems associated with ethnography take two broad forms in studies of adult education: (1) problems that allegedly exist, but rarely do and (2) problems allied to credibility of the method as its applied. The former is more easily dismissed. Incredibly, at conferences of adult education research panelists and discussants spend half their presentation time bemoaning and lamenting the difficulty of getting ethnography accepted "as credible by their institutional colleagues--a point amazing considering the dramatic increase and widespread acceptance of the method in the oldest, largest and probably most prestigious education research organization--American Educational Research Association"(Rist,1980). A related problem arises from pretending that not much has been written about ethnography or that the method has a short history. Bibliographies on and oral reference to methodological analysis tend to be neither exhaustive, nor rich.

The most critical problem in ethnographic research lies in studies which ignore many of the traditional bonds of ethnographic rigor. Simply, ethnographic studies in adult education should be scrutinized in the same way as qualitative research. Reasons for selecting the sample studies must be justified. Reliability and validity must be discussed. Techniques for analyzing data must be made clear.

The future of ethnographic research in adult education lies not in superficial discussion on the "emerging" method (now several centuries old) nor on whether it should be used in education (it has been used successfully more than 15 years), but on applying the method in more and more instances to derive potentially new insights in the field.

ETHNOGRAPHY IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

Robert A. Fellenz and Gary Conti
Texas A&M University

What factors contribute to the development of the individual? Does education play a role in such personal growth? How does such growth correlate with lifelong learning practices? A follow-up study of adult basic education students in Texas utilized naturalistic inquiry to investigate these broad theoretical questions.

An initial step in measuring student growth was the development of a set of criteria that would adequately define such growth. Since the purpose of educational programs is in the final analysis defined by the people active in operationalizing such programs, leadership both at the local and state level were involved in selecting the "learner success" criteria to be examined. A brainstorming session that included local directors, state agency consultants, and university staff development specialists was conducted. Their suggestions were consolidated into a list of more than 20 criteria by which learner success in an adult basic education program might be judged. Local leaders throughout the state were sent these suggestions and were asked to rank the most appropriate criteria by which to assess learner success in adult basic education programs. This selection of goals make it quite evident that those in charge of programs were more interested in having their success measured in terms of personal growth than academic accomplishments. The theories of Maslow, Rogers, and Perls, especially as consolidated by Shostrom, were relied upon in clarifying these characteristics and in specifying approaches to their assessment.

An open-ended personal inteview was selected as the most appropriate method for gathering data for this study. This decision was made because of the demonstrated success of the interview process in other studies involving adult learners especially when such studies were designed to investigate new areas and discover nebulous relationships. Moreover, the interview was considered the only approach flexible enough to handle the intricacies of life histories and personal growth traits as well as the varying language abilities of the proposed participants.

One of the most serious questions that had to be faced in the design of the interview instrument was the degree to which adults could be expected to link past growth experiences with present characteristics. Discussions with other adult education researchers led to the insight that if adults could be led to think of specific activities in which they engaged, they would be much more likely to recall in detail past experiences that had led to the present behavior. Thus, each section of the interview investigated a separate learner success trait and was introduced with questions designed to get the adult learner talking about typical personal behavior in that area. The interviewer then picked up on some specific example of behavior and began to probe as to what past experiences were preceived as causing that characteristic or reaction. It was only later, as a third step, that the interview moved to education and its effect on that aspect of a person's behavior.

Data from 23 male and 42 female adult learners revealed the following:

Self-Concept: The intense desire of these students for self-improvement and their general concern with personal success and failure were indicative of a serious overall need to enhance their self-concept. The vast majority credited positive relationships to other meaningful individuals as the major cause of past growth in this area. Some, however, did specify accomplishments that promoted self-confidence.

Constructive Attitude Toward Life: In view of the many difficulties and disadvantages faced by the majority of the participants, their attitudes were suprisingly constructive with nearly half proclaiming this to be a pretty good world in which to live. Nevertheless, even in this more optomistic group, a significant number were fearful of the future and not at all sure that they could cope with it. Two keys to growth here seemed to emerge: broadening of interpersonal relationships and trying new and stimulating things.

Self-Direction: Although 20% of the students evidenced an alarming degree of dependency, most showed a considerable degree of self-direction or at least some movement in that direction. The major reason for this self-direction seemed to be the very difficulty of their lives and the consequent need to exert themselves in order to accomplish things. An important secondary factor also emerged: the influence of role models. It became quite apparent that many parents and teachers had been overly directive and had allowed no room for the development of a sense of responsibility or initiative.

Relating To Others: The ability to form close relationships with others seemed to be somewhat hampered by the defensiveness of many of those interviewed. About half of the adults either saw no reason for others to want to relate to them or displayed a tendency to think of others in terms of how they could be manipulated for their own benefit. Many also seemed to indicate that they preferred to avoid controversy as much as possible rather than to work through differences to more meaningful relationships.

Working With Others: While only one out of five appeared to be having problems on the job, the majority of those questioned on this trait were unlikely to develop any close relationships with their fellow workers. (As indicated above, many appeared deficient in interpersonal skills.) Nevertheless, the majority did say that the experience of working in groups in the educational program was helpful in learning to work with others on the job.

Problem-Solving: Only one-third of those interviewed gave any indication of the possession of problem-solving or decision-making skills. This may have been due to the design of this segment of the interview, or it may have been that this group of adults was truly weak in these skills. They did speak almost exclusively of emotional support rather than of any process skills when discussing decision-making.

Attitude Toward Learning: Most of the adults showed a very positive attitude toward learning and change. Here again, teacher competencies such as taking time to find out what the individual wanted and needed; keeping check on how well the adults were doing and telling them; and challenging the learners to try new and interesting things were very helpful in developing such positive traits.

Competing For Jobs: There seemed to be substantial uncertainty among the students concerning their ability to compete successfully for jobs. While success in the program made tremendous differences in their confidence levels, many seemed to be asking for more help in securing jobs.

Consumer Skills: Most of the interviewees contended that they had had considerable practice in sharpening their consumer skills. Classroom work in this area might not be as important as some educators have proposed although students did indicate an appreciation for classroom practice on day-to-day tasks being incorporated into their learning activities.

Meeting One's Own Goals: There is no doubt that the adult basic education program was very successful in helping these men and women reach their own goals.

ETHNOGRAPHIC METHODOLOGY IN A STUDY OF WORD RECOGNITION STRATEGIES OF ADULT BEGINNING READERS

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This paper presents the foreshadowed problems of a nine-month study of adult beginning readers, the rationale for ethnography as the research methodology, and the procedures used by a participant-observation team (Boraks and Schumacher, 1981). Throughout the paper, advantages and difficulties of this methodology for the Study of Adult Beginning Readers Project funded by the Virginia Department of Education are cited.

FORESHADOWED PROBLEMS

Malinowski (1922, pp. 8-9) stated a half a century ago that "preconceived ideas are pernicious in any scientific work, but foreshadowed problems are the main endowment of a scientific thinker, and these problems are first revealed to the observer by his theoretical studies." Foreshadowed problems are those questions which partially represent an initial analysis of the problem and the possible theoretical stance which may be taken in the actual study. As events unfold in the natural setting, the various conceptual frameworks and theories are cast aside or combined and reworked until concepts or variables which most closely fit reality are generated.

The foreshadowed problems in this study were: 1) to determine current reading strategies used by adult beginning readers (ABR's); 2) to determine the evolving pattern of specific reading strategies of ABR's; and 3) to relate productive and nonproductive reading strategies of ABR's to reading achievement, instructional strategies, and student characteristics. The initial conceptual frameworks were drawn from 1) reading theories (i.e. psycholinguislistics, information processing, perceptual theories; 2) sociology (i.e. group processes, roles, norms); 3) anthropology (i.e. multicultural language, dialects, and customs); and 4) adult learning theories. Some of these conceptual frameworks, such as those from anthropology, provided insufficient explanatory power. Other conceptual frameworks (e.g. adult development) were added as the data accumulated.

DEFINITION AND METHODOLOGICAL RATIONALE

Ethnography in this study had three characteristics (Schumacher, 1979, 1981). The research design was a case study which focused on the learning-to-read processes in four adult beginning reading classes in several learning centers. Although there were numerous contrasting instructional situations, the design was noncomparative and based on a philosophy of science called phenomenology (McMillan and Schumacher, 1984). Second, data were analyzed through recognized qualitative procedures (Denzin, 1978; Guba, 1978). Third, ethnography was field research which focused on the participants in their natural setting and recorded events *as they occurred*.

Ultimately, the use of ethnographic procedures developed from the purpose and context of the study. Boraks (1979) noted that adult education programs are diverse in adult characteristics and program operations, serve a fluid

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population, and involve a complex learning situation with a multiplicity of variables. The context of this study contained elements difficult to establish internal and external validity for experimental design. Furthermore, the purpose of the study was exploratory rather than verification research. Knowledge of adult learning-to-read processes is at an embryonic stage. Theories of adult reading behavior have been largely derived from research on proficient adults or on children rather than the study of ABR's.

PROCEDURES

Ethnographic procedures included 1) selecting and training a research team, 2) gaining access and acceptance in the field, 3) holding weekly staff-meetings and seminars to specify multiple research roles and evolving foci, and 4) using procedures to establish a valid data base. The research team was selected to provide different experiential, training, and conceptual orientations. Initial training of the team emphasized the mechanics of taking detailed field notes and writing summary observations. The cooperation of the centers was easily obtained but establishing and maintaining the trust of the ABR's was a continuous task and team effort. Different procedures were used to gain acceptance in different classes and multiple research roles were necessary - i.e. from complete participant to complete observer (Gold, 1958). Initial conceptualizations were explored and rejected as new foci were identified. Variables beyond those in the foreshadowed problems were identified, but more questions arose about the interrelationships of these variables and reading behaviors. Procedures used to establish a valid data base were: on-site observation, use of "muted cues" and "unobstrusive measures," extensive field notes, and triangulation (Boraks and Schumacher, 1981).

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